The Nation.

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The Week.

An extra session of Congress is to be called for November the eleventh. The regular session convenes on the first Monday in December. It is safe to predict that there will be more than "a constructive recess" between these two sessions, for our M.C.'s are not to be done out of their mileage a second time. Exactly what useful purpose is to be served by such a hurried session it is hard to say. It will, indeed, enable President Roosevelt's defenders to urge that when once he has expressed his determination on a public matter he does not "flinch." Originally, Congress was to be summoned in September. Then the bright October days were thought more suitable. The final decision to call together our lawmakers in the middle of November serves to keep the President's promise to the ear. In the extra session the activity of our Federal Legislature will have to be brisk indeed to keep pace with the questions they are to consider. Before making "the dirt fly" at Panama, it must be ascertained whether a sea-level canal or a lock canal is desired. The question of rebates and other railroad legislation must be mooted. And now we hear that the leisure of Congress will be occupied with discussing the proposal of Federal supervision of insurance. The kind of legislative mill that will grind out laws on these three subjects in a working time of about two weeks will deserve the name of "doing things."

President Roosevelt has stood by another friend in trouble, and appointed John McMackin consul at Georgetown, British Guiana. As Commissioner of Labor in this State, Mr. McMackin took the duties of his office so lightly that, when his term expired, charity workers and others interested in the condition of laboring men protested against his reappointment. They alleged and proved that he failed to enforce the laws, and was particularly negligent in the matter of illegal child labor. Gov. Higgins thereupon refused to name McMackin for another term. This was, of course, tantamount to a certificate of inefficiency, which seemed to Mr. Roosevelt to qualify McMackin admirably for a consulship. We appear to be unlucky in our consuls at Georgetown. The retiring official, Mr. G. H. Moulton, had some unpleasant things said about him in the Georgetown *Daily Chronicle* of June 23. He seems to have been indulging in a little extra-consular business, *à la* Loomis, and sued in the courts for a contingent fee of $5,000. The suit was dismissed with costs. In its comments on the case, the *Chronicle* said that it was "inconsistent with the function of an officer in the service of a great country like the United States . . . that he should be at liberty to exact commissions." It added that, as a result of Mr. Moulton's too keen eye for private business, "the consul leaves the colony with a reputation far different from that which he enjoyed only a few months ago."

What is there in the air of Caracas that sets so many United States officials wild to make money? We had a little while ago the evidence of the way in which the President's friend Loomis, when Minister there, was hot after a little matter of one-seventh of $10,000,000 as contingent fee, and now comes a friend of the friend, Consular Agent Dolge. The story of his hopeless mixing up of official duty and private money-making would seem incredible had not Mr. Dolge himself certified to its truth. His more than infantile innocence about the whole affair is the most amazing part. "Yes, yes; I am putting the United States coat-of-arms on my laundry; I am dabbling in this business and pushing this concession, but what of it? I admit it all, but what next?" What ought to come next is action by the State Department. It is not strange that, after the Loomis coat of whitewash, we should have Uncle Sam's coat-of-arms on a Venezuelan laundry, or any other scheme of an official "on the make"; but surely the authorities must see that this kind of thing cannot go on. Mr. Dolge has made it ridiculous.

In strict logic it would be hard to find a reason for getting rid of Statistician Hyde from the Department of Agriculture that does not apply likewise to Secretary Wilson himself. If the sins of subordinates are to be visited upon their superiors, the process can hardly be stopped short of the executive chiefs. But newspapers in the West, and especially his own State of Iowa, have been prompt to rally to Mr. Wilson's defence. "He has been at the head of a department which annually expends $5,000,000," says the *Register and Leader* of Des Moines, "in the interests of an occupation that annually produces $5,000,000,000, and in that length of time [eight years] has made it the greatest scientific organization in the world." As a matter of fact, the discovery of graft in that department was unexpected. If ever a Cabinet officer took pride in his work, Secretary Wilson did. If any Washingtonian had been asked six months ago—or to-day, for that matter—what high Government official was most closely bound up in his duties, he would have been likely to answer, "James Wilson." A practical farmer, as well as a former professor of agriculture, he followed the various activities under his charge with understanding and sympathy, while, as for experience, he has already surpassed in service all but three of the men who ever sat in the Cabinet room. But he did not see what was going on under his nose in a service which, as Mr. Hyde truly says, was "always under fire," and therefore a special object for executive vigilance. That his proper pride in his work should have grown into inability to see what was wrong in it, is what he has personally most to regret in the present scandals.

The feature of the national reciprocity conference, called to meet in Chicago on August 15 and 16, which is attracting serious attention, is that the movement originated in the West. Bodies like the Illinois Manufacturers' Association, the Board of Trade of Chicago, the National Live Stock Association, the Cattle Raisers' Association of Texas, and other similar organizations have joined in the call for the convention. A special point is made, too, of the fact that the men who are doing most to render it successful are not politicians. Most of them are Republicans, however, who have long since lost their superstitious awe of the Dingley tariff. Of course, the packers and stockmen are urged to seek reciprocity because of the attitude of Germany, which threatens, after next March, to exclude practically all American meat, as well as breadstuffs, from her markets. But the dairy interests also want to know why Central America, Cuba, and the West Indies prefer to take butter from the Netherlands, and the fruit raisers of Maryland are anxious to find out the reason for their poor foreign trade. Driven from Massachusetts, boycotted by China, punished by Germany, and now held up by the Middle West as a throttler of trade, the standpatter has but one refuge left—the Senate. Perhaps, in time, the Senate, too, will cease to be a glorified Home-Market Club. Mention of this body, by the way, reminds us that we did Lieut.-Gov. Guild of Massachusetts unintentional injustice last week. He has not sought to conceal, nor has he abandoned, his old attitude towards reciprocity.

It is a lingering death that the Chicago teamsters' strike has died. Though actual dissolution did not occur until Friday, the case had been so long adjudged hopeless that for weeks the news

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of it had been treated as of secondary importance. What this prolonged conflict has cost to both parties is almost past estimating. The city of Chicago has had to spend far more than it could afford for special police protection; the loss of business to the firms affected has been enormous, and the loss of wages to the men called out—the simplest item to compute—is a staggering sacrifice. But the teamsters' strike deserves to be long remembered as the perfect type of all that is erratic, futile, and discreditable in unionism. It was a sympathetic strike for the benefit of workmen in a non-allied trade, who did not want it. Waiving that, moreover, the garment workers supposed to be benefited numbered only a score, while four thousand teamsters stopped work. Violence and venality, too, in their worst forms were disclosed while the strike was in progress. Such a strike could not and never did have public sympathy, and it rightly ends in ignominious failure. Credit belongs to the authorities who—in spite of early paltering and weakness—did preserve order and protect street traffic, making the issue certain. As it is, there is a most impressive lesson for all decent workingmen of the dangers that lie in crazy, truculent, and unprincipled leadership.

Union labor in Chicago has had a taste of the medicine which some of its zealots have been dealing out to the "scabs." An effective "wrecking crew" made things lively for a time on Sunday week at an election of the Chicago Federation, tearing up the ballots, smashing the furniture of the hall, and beating one of their own leaders into insensibility. The full accounts of the affair furnished by the Chicago newspapers have a familiar look. Michael Donnelly, president of the Butchers' Workmen Union, was to be "done up." The "wreckers" were stationed at the door. As Donnelly entered, a slung-shot laid him out, then eight pairs of boots began to beat a tattoo on his ribs. The election officials had already been locked up in a side room, their ballot-boxes smashed and ballots destroyed, and, when Donnelly had been attended to, his assailants escaped unhindered and apparently unrecognized. President Dold of the Federation says that he cannot "imagine the motive for such a disturbance"; and President Shea of the Teamsters' Union calls it an "outrage." Why should Mr. Dold be astonished? Is he not familiar with the testimony of men, like the notorious Driscoll, who have admitted that hired ruffians are kept on the pay-rolls of those who would use the unions for their own ends?

John Mitchell's somewhat impressive reminder to the convention of Mine Workers at Scranton on Wednesday week that their contracts with the coal operators expire on April 1, 1906, is anything but comforting to the coal-burning public. For eight and a half months more the truce is to last; at the end of that time the mining regions will go back to the same conditions that existed in previous years. What is alarming to the country at large is the preparation which both sides are making for a long and bitter fight. We have recently had shrewd estimates of the depth of the Union's war chest, while, on the employers' side, as Mr. Mitchell said, "on every hand stockades are being built. Places are being filled with every available pound of coal." That both sides are preparing for the worst does not, of course, necessarily mean that it will come. It may be doubted if any outside intervention could this time avert a conflict and the terrible suffering which it entails on the innocent public, and we may be in for a renewal of that continental squeeze which was on the point of collapsing when President Roosevelt intervened in 1903. Now, it is more than hinted, anthracite and bituminous unions will pull together.

The New York Legislature has decided, at Governor Higgins's instigation, to institute an immediate inquiry into the life-insurance business in this State. The Equitable's one hope of future growth is to have itself officially declared disinfected and purified. As for the other companies, particularly the Mutual Life and the New York, they have suffered by the general distrust of insurance methods created by the Equitable revelations. People are everywhere scrutinizing insurance propositions and cross-questioning agents as never before. The shortcomings of Superintendent Hendricks, the conspicuous omissions from his report, the general belief that important Republican politicians besides Mr. Depew are gravely involved, the wobbling of the Governor, have all made a very bad impression, especially beyond the borders of the State. This is only heightened by the dismissal of the Controller of the Equitable and the failure to trace the mysterious loan of $685,000 which, until recently, seems to have stood upon the books of the Mercantile Trust Company. The legislative investigation means that light will be thrown into every dark corner; that the public will be acquainted with every step taken and every question put to the witnesses, who certainly should include every person in any way connected with the scandal.

Mr. McAdoo's calling upon the colored people of the riotous district in this city to surrender their weapons is a step in the right direction. But they are entitled to inquire why they should be compelled to disarm, and not the riotous white people around them as well. After the testimony of ill-treatment of the negroes by the police given last week by various apparently trustworthy witnesses, Mr. McAdoo ought to initiate without loss of time a searching investigation into the whole trouble. Here is where an advisory committee of citizens might render him much greater service than by telling him what officers to promote and what to pass by. It must not be forgotten that the fierce riots of three years ago were largely due to scandalous police brutality. This was conclusively proved at the time by the City Club, but no policeman was punished. So far as the whites are concerned, the best-informed white student of the negro population writes us as follows: "If only the white people don't get off scot free! They are much the more aggressive, particularly those on West End Avenue." But Mr. McAdoo seems to have jumped to the conclusion that the negroes are to be held responsible without further inquiry. If the whole affair does nothing else, it ought once more to call the attention of social workers and philanthropists to the low condition of both whites and blacks in the district between Sixtieth and Sixty-fourth Streets and between West End Avenue and Tenth Avenue. Here is a field for missionaries which ought to be taken in hand by the leading churches of the city.

Ex-Secretary Lamont's premature death is a distinct loss to the Democratic party, of which he has been of late an eminently wise counsellor. A quiet, unassuming man, he was none the less possessed of exceptional ability, and he fairly earned the Secretaryship of War with which Mr. Cleveland rewarded him for most devoted service when the ex-President took office the second time. In that position Mr. Lamont made an excellent record. We are inclined to believe that political influence was at a greater discount in the War Department during his incumbency than during any other recent Administration. Many of the reforms carried out by Secretary Root were suggested or asked by Mr. Lamont in his annual reports. But Congressional interest in the army had not then been stimulated by the war with Spain and the scandals of the Alger régime. Hence it was left to another to achieve the reforms Mr. Lamont desired. The appointments to generalcies and other important offices made during Mr. Lamont's incumbency bore extremely slight traces of the personal and political favoritism which has been the rule since. Modest and clean-handed personally as he was, Mr. Lamont was as far removed from the Paul Morton and Loomis type of latter-day statesmanship as he was from the George Fred Williamses and Altgelds on the Democratic side.

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Senator Cullom's plans in his coming campaign for reëlection are as praiseworthy as they are novel. In a word, he proposes to build up organizations in every Illinois county without employing Federal officeholders to lead them, or, contrariwise, appointing their leaders to Federal office. What the Federal officers will find to occupy their time in the future, if the Cullom plan spreads, is hard to conjecture; but, at all events, this rash disregard of precedents by a distinguished septuagenarian is so remarkable as to need explaining. It is, in effect, a confession of the great potency of the outcry against the "Federal crowd" which was raised in so many Western States last year. The services of a compact body of lieutenants, well paid by the national Government, are obviously valuable. But the patronage-dispensing oligarchy of the Senate has come to be more and more distrusted. La Follette, in the State next door to Illinois, made most artful use of this feeling against Senator Spooner's faction. In Illinois, it has been abundantly demonstrated, by Mr. Deneen's nomination among other things, that the Federal influence is by no means all-powerful. Senator Cullom is simply confessing this when he begins his canvass, not as the head of an "organization," but alone as a public servant asking approval after many years of service.

From Viscount Hayashi's interview, obviously in retort to M. Witte's, it appears that both are willing to see the war go on unless the terms of peace are favorable. There is too much of this sort of talk. It is perfectly understood that when the plenipotentiaries exchange ideas at Portsmouth, there will be a wide gap between bid and asked, but meantime there is no use in anticipating and perhaps compromising the inevitable bargaining by vague controversy. Viscount Hayashi's rather scornful observation that Europe must remember the Japanese are not angels, must rank with Salisbury's cynicisms. The reminder, for that matter, was hardly needed. Nobody supposes that the Japanese are angels, but it is believed that they are cool heads and will enter the Peace Conference with a very clear idea of the purposes of the war. It is understood that, aside from the obvious motive of natural defence, a desire for prestige and recognition as a civilized Power lay behind the Asiatic campaign. The admiration of the civilized world Japan has already abundantly earned; it remains now to get the good will of the world. To obtain not only prestige, but friendship, Japan can afford to pay something. From this point of view, to show magnanimity to Russia would require not an angelic host in the Foreign Office at Tokio, but simply an enlightened expediency in control. Japan is at the parting of the ways: it remains for her to choose her rôle. To play the ruthless conqueror now will involve her in burdensome military expenses for an indefinite period, whereas every seeming advantage sacrificed for the sake of peace will be soon repaid by savings in the military budget.

Agreement at the first session of the conference could occur only by a miracle. That the envoys should meet with radically divergent views and by reciprocal concessions gradually approach an understanding, lies in the very nature of the case. Nothing that has yet been said indicates more than the normal difference of opinion at the present stage of the transaction. Nor is there any disturbing force in the somewhat pathetic plea of China to be admitted to the conference, for that plea—respectable as is the desire of a patient on the operating-table to be consulted as to the extent of the proposed amputation—can hardly be granted. To admit it would only complicate matters already difficult enough. The circular note from the Yamen to the Powers is merely notice that China will not necessarily be bound by such disposition as Japan and Russia may make of Chinese territory. From the principle that any Mantchurian settlement will require a supplementary agreement between China and Japan, no one will seriously dissent.

The "inspired" account of what Emperor William would say to the Czar, in their Baltic Sea interview, was shrewdly put out by the German Foreign Office. Nor does the keen prevision it evinced convict the Emperor either of lack of alert self-interest or of hard-headed common sense. It is not to be supposed that a Hohenzollern has any strong hereditary sympathies with movements making for a democratic participation in government; yet it may be readily surmised that William would counsel his imperial brother in Russia to "grant reforms" purely on the ground of an intelligent preference for a limited monarchy rather than a revolutionary, not to say a chaotic, republic on Germany's eastern frontier. The Kaiser is also officially credited with intending to say that "the German Government is interested in having the neighboring country peaceful and prosperous, for it is towards the Russian Empire that Germany's manufacturers look for great trade expansion in the future." This last dictum runs counter to the economic philosophy of the man in the street. That wise individual is commonly given to wagging his head when war is declared, and prophesying good times for neutral nations.

Mr. Balfour's defeat on an amendment concerning the Irish Land Commission was not in the nature of a snap vote. The division was taken after protracted debate, and there were nearly four hundred members in the House. It is clear that the best efforts of the Government whips were unable to offset the defection of the Irish members. What a Government beaten by a majority of three in a vote on supply shall do is largely a matter of taste and expediency. Several courses are open: the rebuff may be accepted silently as of slight importance, or the clause may be resubmitted to Parliament. On the other hand, a defeat on so prominent a point of Ministerial policy as the Land Act is by no means to be minimized. It is, at the best, a clear indication that the elaborate programme of Irish conciliation has failed utterly, and that the Government can be put in peril whenever Mr. Redmond's group chooses to take the necessary pains. Lord Rosebery, in June, 1895, went out on a similar rebuff. On a vote to reduce the salary of Mr. Campbell-Bannermann, Secretary of War, several of the Radicals refused to support the Government, and the censure was passed by a majority of seven in a small House. Campbell-Bannerman's resignation was followed by that of the Ministry. This well-remembered incident has not shaken Mr. Balfour's resolve to stomach the mishap and stick to office, and he is already stretched on Mr. Redmond's rack.

A resolution of the coalition majority of the Hungarian Diet proclaims a political state of siege against the Fejervary Government. All patriotic Magyars are exhorted not to pay taxes or render military service, and local officials are told to disregard the orders of the national administration. Thus the party, though justified in attacking the constitutional standing of the Premier, is taking steps that may lead to secession. The situation is so serious that it seems likely that the King must withdraw Fejervary's "business" Cabinet, and reopen negotiations with the Kossuthists. Then the majority must either agree to a government on constitutional lines, or remain in the present attitude of semi-revolutionary impotence. No serious observer believes the time is ripe for an independent Hungary, and it is highly important that the energies now expended in fighting for the "word of command" and for fiscal independence should be directed to a frank and thoroughgoing revision of the organic alliance between Austria and Hungary. Evidently so difficult a task cannot be undertaken until the present passions have quieted. It will strain the great personal resources of Franz Josef to find a *modus vivendi*, and turn the present revolutionary current into channels of constitutional revision.

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A RENOVATED ERMINE.

It was urged in Judge Hooker's interest that his proposed punishment was heavier than his offences made fitting. Peccadilloes, it was said, should not be treated as if they were capital crimes. But it was really not the extreme penalty of the State Constitution that was invoked against Judge Hooker. He might have been impeached, under Article VI., Section 13. In that case, judgment might have extended to "disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under this State." But the mere process of "removal of judges," provided for in section 11, carries with it no such disqualification. It is, in fact, precisely that milder form of punishment which was so much desiderated last winter in the Swayne impeachment at Washington. If Congress had been able merely to remove Swayne, as the Legislature might have removed Hooker, it is quite possible that the Federal judge would not have escaped. And if Judge Hooker had been simply removed, there was nothing to prevent him from immediately seeking reëlection. But he was not removed, and still many newspapers are railing at him. They speak of him as if the failure of the Legislature to remove him had not put his character, and his fitness for the bench, in an entirely new light. This seems to us perilously near displaying contempt of court, which, in this case, we ought sedulously to conceal, as the lawyer said. Moreover, it is to show disrespect to the majesty of the law. The State has resorted to the legal process laid down in the Constitution for removing corrupt or unfit judges. Hence, clearly, the fact that the process failed in the instance of Justice Hooker, proves beyond a peradventure that he is neither corrupt nor unfit.

For note the impregnable legal status which Judge Hooker now enjoys. He can hold his head high. He is in the same category, legally, as Dick Croker, who killed a man but could not be convicted of murder. He is, again, in the enviable position of Nan Patterson, who went forth a free and proud woman because the jury could not make up their minds that she was a proved murderess. On the very day that Judge Hooker got his unequivocal vindication, Congressman Williamson received a similar one in Portland, Oregon. The latter was tried for land frauds, but only ten of the jury voted to convict him. That was not a Constitutional verdict of guilty, just as the 76 votes for the removal of Judge Hooker did not make up the Constitutional two-thirds; and both Williamson and Hooker are, therefore, innocent men in the eye of the law. Some impatient readers may exclaim with Sir Walter Raleigh. "That is to make the law a toy. I stand on the fact." But they should remember that Raleigh was, nevertheless, beheaded, and should take warning against speaking ill of the law or its ministers.

In legal effect, Judge Hooker is now an ornament to the bench. His brother justices will be delighted to sit with him. They will not feel like drawing aside lest contamination spread from him to them. His ermine is now, legally, as spotless as Jay's. It has been put through the legislative renovator, and, though it may smell of chlorine for a few days, and look a little "spotty" to a keen eye, that will all soon be forgotten, and the judge will resume, with the *Judicious* Hooker, his praise of that law which is the mother of our peace and joy. His brethren on the bench, who testified that they knew nothing of the offences with which he was charged, but that they considered him a "fine man and a fine judge," will be able better than most of us to appreciate the legal nullity of the fact that 76 members of the Assembly voted for his removal. If 24 more had voted the same way, the Supreme Court judges would have recoiled in horror at an unworthy colleague; but the Constitutional number not having voted, they know that absolutely nothing stands against him on the record, and that he is as much entitled to the respect and honor of his fellows as any criminal about whom a jury has disagreed. Yet with this legal aspect of the matter so clear and beyond dispute, purblind newspaper writers are lugging in extraneous considerations of public policy and morals!

For our part, we will not add to the ungenerous allusions to Judge Hooker's past. That is all sponged from the slate. He is made an upright judge by the fact that a majority of only 9 voted in the Assembly that the evidence proved him crooked. We have had too much innuendo directed against the judiciary not to rejoice when a suspected judge comes off so triumphantly as Justice Hooker. He may hereafter hold court in perfect legal security—even greater than that of the English judge who thanked God that he could not be removed except by the action of both Houses of Parliament. Judge Hooker may preside over the trials of grafters and political corruptionists with a good (legal) conscience. He may writhe inwardly as the testimony takes a turn unpleasantly parallel to his own successful "beating of the law" and his procurement of the appointment of debtors and dependents and relatives, but outwardly he may take his stand on the law with the heroic pose of Shylock himself. "The Legislature did not remove me, did it? Then what are you talking about?"

There has been so much confusion about the exact legal effect of the Hooker trial that we have thought it desirable to be thus precise. It is, indeed, difficult to be patient with those who are urging irrelevant matter. They allege the deep sense of injury and disgrace which the people of this State feel; but that is purely *aliunde*. They affirm that no self-respecting lawyer will appear before Judge Hooker if he can possibly avoid it. We reply, that is not *ad rem*. They point to the grave political consequences; show that Odell and his tools intervened to save the day for Hooker, and ask what will be the effect on the Republican party of the demonstration that it cannot keep even its own judiciary clean. But there ought to be another Gallio to drive such irrelevant objectors from the judgment-seat. All this is beside the mark. The desired removal of Judge Hooker could not be had. In the noble words of the Republican leader of the Assembly, the Legislature said to him: "Go and sin no more!" With that high title to the confidence and esteem of the public, Judge Hooker once more takes his place upon the bench.

ENGINEERING CONDITIONS IN THE NAVY.

The explosion of the *Bennington's* boilers, in the harbor of San Diego, recalls vividly Admiral Melville's warnings before his retirement from active service. He declared that he had seen torpedo boats, cruisers, and battleships laid up with injuries "due to careless and ignorant handling of costly machinery"; that the engineering situation had grown very critical; that too much reliance was being placed on the warrant machinists, and that a special engineering school for some of the younger officers was imperatively needed. On the other hand, Rear-Admiral Rae, the present chief engineer, is a firm believer in the amalgamation of line and staff, although realizing the need of more engineering experts. Just what condition the navy's engines are in, no layman can satisfactorily determine. Reports of speed trials strangely conflict. Some experts advocate a return to the days of special engineer officers, instead of requiring every line officer to be an engineer as well as a master of gunnery, a navigator, and a tactician. When Prof. J. A. Ewing, the Director of British Naval Education, visited this country last October, he made a special study of this question, and in an official report has declared that the amalgamation scheme was successful, citing as its most enthusiastic adherent "Bob" Evans. It would seem as if the *Bennington's* accident should now furnish a reason for getting at the real facts by means of a commission of naval and civilian experts.

Meanwhile it behooves us to examine carefully into the engineering system which has prevailed in the navy since the passage of the act of 1899 amalgamating the engineer officers, who had

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existed separately from the first introduction of steam in the navy, with the line officers, whose sole duties up to that time had pertained to the navigating and fighting of their vessels. A desire on the part of the engineers for rank and command was largely responsible for the change—the root of the trouble being really social. The engineer officer felt that, although a graduate of Annapolis and a gentleman, he was ranked with locomotive, engineers and the men who run dynamos. He was aggrieved that his title suggested an oil-can and overalls, while his classmate walked the deck in natty uniform and absorbed pretty nearly all the praise and glory.

This friction between the line and staff might have been still going on had it not been that the powerful aid of Theodore Roosevelt was invoked, with the result that the engineers were abolished and transferred to the line in 1899. From that time on, the obnoxious titles disappeared, and there was nothing in his rank or title to show whether Ensign Smith was a watch or division officer, or spent his time in the engine-room. But it was not long before Rear-Admiral Melville and others began to worry and to doubt whether the American naval officer could be made an all-around genius, or at least an expert in ordnance construction, in gunnery, in torpedoes, in navigation, in infantry tactics when on shore, and finally a master of the art of steam engineering. It was soon noted that this radical departure was not imitated in foreign navies, and that the mercantile fleets of the world had no thought of amalgamating their navigating officers and engine-room personnel because of the Washington experiment. Moreover, it speedily became apparent that the newly created class of warrant machinists, that is, the engine-room non-commissioned officers, was assuming the burdens laid down by the trained engineer officers. They were required to furnish, on sea pay of from $1,200 to $1,800, the technical information and practical experience needed to run the engines, while the commissioned officers assigned to engine-room duty "bossed the job." It next developed that good warrant machinists were very hard to obtain; they preferred civil positions to the restrictions of the navy, and this is particularly true of the torpedo-boat service. Meanwhile, in the six years since the passage of the act, the number of trained engineers has sunk from 181 to about 120, and, of these, 57 are permanently assigned to engineer duty on shore only.

It is true that some effort has been made to remedy these conditions, notably by planning a post-graduate engineering school and by selecting certain young officers to specialize in engineering questions precisely as others are detailed to specialize in ordnance questions. It is arranged, also, that when certain men of engineering aptitude have rearched the grade of lieutenant-commander they shall be assigned to permanent engineering duty. But what is this but an effort to train engineers like those amalgamated, without giving them the obnoxious titles?

In the *Bennington's* blowing up while at anchor, we see several results of the system, to which we would call especial attention. When this vessel was at sea in 1897—two years before the line and engineer amalgamation—she carried two trained engineer officers, Chief Engineer John K. Barton and Assistant Engineer Emory Winship. The former had then had twenty-three years of active service subsequent to his graduation as a cadet engineer in 1874; his assistant, Mr. Winship, had been only a year out of Annapolis. But when the *Bennington* blew up on Friday, the officer in entire charge of the engines was Ensign Charles T. Wade, who was graduated from Annapolis in 1902, just three years ago. Since he went to sea in 1900 he has served on the *Wompatuck*, a tug; the *Manila*, a station ship; the *Yorktown*, a sister ship of the *Bennington*, and, since December last, on the latter vessel. We do not know if Ensign Wade had been only on engineering duty since 1900, or whether he has been a line officer part of that time. But if the former is the case, and if it should appear that he is the smartest officer out of Annapolis in years, we still cannot understand why a youth not yet twenty-six years of age should carry the responsibility given in 1897 to two officers, one of whom had had twenty-six years of engineering duty and who was then forty-four years old. To make the matter worse, there appears to have been no warrant machinist on the *Bennington*, but only machinist mates, who are paid from $40 to $70 a month. Secretary Bonaparte himself ought to find out why the *Bennington's* engines were in charge of an ensign of twenty-six. If the Personnel law is at fault, it cannot be repealed too soon; it will have cost sufficient lives in all conscience. And if, as seems to us, the wise step is to return to the good old methods of the merchant marine, why, let us all set about inventing titles for our engineer officers which will satisfy them—and their wives. We would suggest the simple English designation of Staff Captain, Staff Commander, and Staff Lieutenant, if an engineer must be made to smell sweeter by another name.

NAVY PROMOTIONS.

At just what age an American naval officer should attain the rank commensurate with the command of a battleship or a fleet, is a question which never ceases to agitate naval circles. The recent Japanese victories have started the discussion anew. The Mikado's battleship and cruiser commanders, it appears, are, either by accident or design, in the early forties. Hence the all-important lesson of the campaign in the East is that we must have younger and more aggressive captains, carefully selected among their comrades because of their preëminent abilities and virtues. At least, this is the opinion of the navy maniacs who see our liberties lost if we do not have exactly their number of battleships, with crews and officers as ready to go into action as Togo's men when Rozhestvensky's fleet came in sight.

Paul Morton, typifying in himself the man who rises quickly to important executive positions in civil life, was deeply impressed by this argument. He dwelt with horror in his last report upon the fact that, while our battleship captains average fifty-seven years, in the German and English navies the average is forty-eight years, and in the Japanese fleet forty-five and three-quarters years. Of course, Mr. Morton did not take the trouble to point out that both the German and Japanese navies are recent creations, in which promotion has been very rapid by reason of sudden expansion, and that these conditions are in considerable measure of a temporary character. In the British fleet a determined effort is made to have young captains, which is rendered somewhat easy because many men of means and title enter the service and resign after some years, and there is no public objection to carrying on half pay a large number of men in perfect physical and mental health in order that their juniors may be pushed ahead. In the American navy the resignation of any line officer above the rank of lieutenant is practically unheard of, and the men who have private means are remarkably few in number. Hence retirements for age (sixty-two years) or for physical disability were practically the only means of creating vacancies in the upper grades until, under the Roosevelt Personnel law, a certain number of retirements of healthy and vigorous men was authorized in order to bring about additional promotions.

But even this does not suit the men who, like the present Chief of the Bureau of Navigation, foresee an even greater age in officers obtaining command rank, owing to the delayed promotion of the lieutenants and lieutenant-commanders who were badly blocked during the years from 1870 to 1900. Rear-Admiral Converse would compulsorily retire within a few years all commanders at fifty, and all captains at fifty-five; but neither he nor any other officer shows the slightest regard for the taxpayer's pocket in discussing this matter, or stops to inquire whether the example already set of retiring capable men to make way for their juniors is not a per-

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nicious example likely to be followed in the army and the civil service. But, waiving all Treasury considerations, is it really established that an officer, to be a good commander of men, must be a captain by forty-five or fifty?

Writing on this whole question in the *Proceedings of the Naval Institute*, Lieut. R. H. Jackson affirms that we have to-day excellent flag officers at fifty-seven and fifty-eight. If we look back into our naval history we find, of course, some dashing young heroes of the Cushing and Flusser type. But Farragut was sixty when the Civil War broke out; Porter was fifty when he ran the Vicksburg batteries; Dupont was sixty when he attacked Charleston, and Goldsborough fifty-seven when he took Roanoke; and we are of the opinion that they did their work in a pretty satisfactory manner. John A. Winslow sank the *Alabama* when fifty-three. Coming to more recent events, the people of this country were pretty well satisfied with Dewey's and Sampson's captains at Manila and Santiago, and with these officers themselves. Yet Dewey was sixty-one and Sampson fifty-eight. Of their captains, Gridley was fifty-three, Lamberton fifty-five, Wildes fifty-five, Chadwick fifty-four, Coghlan fifty-four, Clark fifty-five, Philip fifty-eight, Cook fifty-five, Evans fifty-two, Taylor fifty-three, and Higginson fifty-five. Now, not one of these men broke down physically during their long service in the tropics, and every one did his duty well. Yet if the modern theory had prevailed prior to 1898, most of them would have been on the retired list, or they would all of them have been rear-admirals, and, therefore, only one or two would have taken part in the actual fighting. Moreover, the greatest advantage of having these men as commanders would have been lost—namely, their previous war service, every one of them having taken part in the Civil War and being therefore a veteran.

This showing of itself, it seems to us, exposes the alarmists who would adopt with naval officers the policy of churches with ministers who have reached the "dead line" of fifty. So far as the theory of promotion by selection is concerned, we are glad to see signs of a revulsion of feeling against this pet doctrine of President Roosevelt, just as there is a similar reaction in the army against a proposal fraught with grave danger to both services. Thus, Capt. E. B. Barry, Lieut.-Commander W. I. Chambers, Lieuts. R. H. Jackson, I. H. Gillis, and H. O. Stickney have all come out against it in the last *Proceedings of the Naval Institute*. Nothing else was to have been expected; in a republic like this it will be impossible to bar out political or other influences if men are to be advanced for special reasons. The real remedy is the weeding out of the lazy, the indifferent, or the worthless.

Promotion by seniority, it must not be forgotten, worked well in 1861 and 1898, when selection was undreamed of. Moreover, no lawmakers or naval theorists can ever fix the age when any given man is at the height of his powers, mentally and physically, or when the falling off begins. Nobody attempts this in civil life, where some of the responsibilities are fully as great as those of a battleship captain. One man will do his best work at forty, while his classmate does not ripen fully until fifty, and some men, like Abram S. Hewitt, have performed splendid service after seventy. Finally, a naval officer is particularly in need of wisdom and judgment. Human experience teaches that the best counsellors of nations have not been tossed aside arbitrarily at fifty-seven or sixty-two.

THE SHIPPING TRUST.

Annual reports of the International Mercantile Marine Company—more familiarly known as the "Shipping Trust"—have from the first attracted special attention because of the remarkable circumstances in which that company had its origin. The undertaking may be fairly described as the climax of the wild promoting craze of 1901. Two principles seemed at that time to have been definitely accepted in certain financial quarters: one, that the virtue of mere combination of rival companies was such as to warrant any recapitalization which should bring it about; the other, that a new era in finance had opened, which rendered needless any attention to the teachings of history. The Shipping Trust was projected with a view to raising money enough to buy up the transatlantic mercantile marine at whatever price its owners should demand. Starting with such a plan, and with the American public seemingly eager to lay boundless sums of capital at the most daring promoter's feet, it is not strange that the purchase was effected. A period of unusual prosperity in the trade was drawing to an end; the foreign owners of the White Star, Leyland, and Dominion Lines were perfectly well aware that the end was near. Europe's industrial "boom," which had crowded the ships with freight, was already collapsing; the Boer war, which had drawn heavily on competing tonnage to provide for army needs, could not continue more than a few months longer. At just this juncture came the American syndicate with bids so extravagant that the foreign owners were literally staggered. They sold, on their own terms, mostly for cash; the two American companies were acquired through exchange of their own shares for the stock of the Shipping Trust; $100,000,000 stock and $50,000,000 bonds were marketed through a syndicate with the life-insurance affiliation usual in those days, and the "deal" went through.

This is history; now for the sequel. The Mercantile Marine report for the calendar year 1903, published last July, showed $355,000 earned over and above the interest on outstanding bonds. On July 18 the statement for 1904 was issued, and showed that earnings failed by $2,039,150 to meet fixed charges. It is undoubtedly true that last year was a peculiarly trying period in the ocean trade. It was so, however, for reasons which might have been readily foreseen in 1901, and which doubtless were foreseen by the English owners who sold out to the Shipping Trust. No monopoly is possible, or ever was, in the ocean highway; and at the very time when the outlook for new business was growing doubtful, a wholly unprecedented volume of new shipping was being poured out from the yards. What has happened would have been inevitable even without such contributory incidents as the decline in this country's wheat export trade these past two years. Other seasons will undoubtedly ensue more favorable to profits on transatlantic lines; but they will serve as slight apology for the extraordinary promotion scheme of four years ago. The only reassuring fact about this experiment, as about others which came to grief in 1903, is that the Trust's discredited securities point the moral of 1901 so plainly that it will be a good many years before such projects will again get a hearing with the investing public.

President Ismay's comment on the year's results draws attention to some peculiar influences in the ocean trade conditions of the period which ought to be fairly weighed. Whether they do or do not throw a more roseate light on the future of this combination, whose $100,000,000 stock has never earned anything, and which failed by $2,000,000 last year to earn the $3,800,000 annual interest on its bonds, a study of the causes of this remarkable showing ought at least to clear up the question of an ocean steamship Trust. The truth is that the American combination, which tried, by brute force of money, to dominate rates and traffic on the transatlantic highway, has thus far served only to intensify competition. The Cunard Company, which refused to join the combination, at once became an aggressive rival; it was sustained by the British Government, which naturally favored the one large line that remained available as a naval reserve when the international Trust absorbed the others. But this was the least of the new combination's worries. It was confronted, even before its incorporation, by the competition of the compactly capitalized German lines—a serious source of danger to an enterprise loaded down in the beginning with a mountain of watered stock.

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The Mercantile Marine started out by paying tribute to these German companies. An absurdly one-sided agreement between them and the Trust was made, which kept the Trust's boats out of German ports while only nominally restricting the German lines. A very similar contract made the syndicate pay to the German lines a 6 per cent. subsidy on one-fourth of their stock, while in return the German companies were to pay to the Trust one-fourth of whatever dividends were declared on their own stock. If the German lines paid no dividends, the Mercantile Marine got nothing; but the Germans still got their 6 per cent. subsidy. This extraordinary arrangement was explained in the contract as planned "to enable each of the contracting parties to have a direct interest in the business of the other." One detects a faint aroma of the lately much-celebrated railway "community-of-interest." It was part of the hodge-podge economic theory of the day. As a matter of fact, the German lines always paid less to the Trust, on this altruistic contract, than the Trust paid to them. But this was not all. A year ago these same German allies undertook to drive the Cunard Company out of a long-established business of soliciting immigrants to America through agents on the Continent. A rate war ensued; third-class Atlantic rates came down from $27.50 to $10; as Mr. Ismay remarks, this left the Mercantile Marine "no alternative but to make corresponding reductions in rates to maintain its position in the trade." So the matter stands to-day; the result having been the fall of the combination's net receipts for 1904 to 45 per cent. even of the previous year's poor showing, and to 30 per cent. of the figure confidently predicted at the time when the Trust was floated.

The question naturally arises, is this collapse of profits in 1904 a passing incident, or does it argue permanent danger to the enterprise? In either case, why were such possibilities overlooked when the security-manufacturers of 1902 took the ill-fated project in hand? To the second question we know of no answer save the overpowering financial delusion of that day. The first and foremost proposition was to sell the stock of such undertakings; how this was done, with "underwriting syndicates," with a prior claim on the vast accumulations of insurance policyholders, and with a fit of temporary madness on the part of the investing public, every one knows. Only two considerations were then alleged which appealed, even for an hour, to intelligent minds. One was the chance of a huge subsidy gift by the United States Government; the other, a vague and intangible idea that somehow, when the "magnates" controlling the Mercantile Marine should also control all the railways running inland from the coast, such mutual arrangements could be made between land and water lines as to shut out rival ocean carriers from effective competition.

Both these arguments very shortly turned out to be completely hollow. If the Subsidy bill, so ardently pressed by the Trust's foremost agent, Senator Hanna, had ever had any possibility of enactment, that possibility vanished when appeal for it meant, not assistance to a struggling industry, but a gift of public funds to an enormously wealthy Trust, for the sole purpose of enabling it to pay dividends on watered stock. From so monstrous a proposition, even the former supporters of subsidies naturally shrank. And the theory of a joint monopoly of land and sea transportation lines has been shattered even more effectually. There are competing transcontinental lines as there were before the days of "community-of-interest" and "holding companies," and their competition is possibly more bitter now than it was then. One can imagine what would happen on the land if a single group of these railways were to attempt an exclusive offensive and defensive alliance with the ships of the Mercantile Marine. Of what would happen on the sea, this year's experience of the Shipping Trust gives a sufficiently plain hint. We suspect that there remains, for that huge water-logged combination, simply the recourse usually left for companies which have misused the money market and over-capitalized delusive hopes. Its business will have to be managed on exactly the lines employed before the promoters laid their hands on the constituent companies. As to its capital, the officers may as well make public confession of the blunders of 1902, and set to work reorganizing.

SAINTE-BEUVE'S CORRESPONDENCE WITH THE OLIVIERS.

PARIS, July 12, 1905.

The inedited correspondence of Sainte-Beuve with M. and Madame Olivier has just been published, with an introduction and notes by M. Léon Séché. Much interest is necessarily attached to all that concerns Sainte-Beuve; his reputation as a critic is not on the wane, but increases every day; his 'Causeries' will remain one of those books which can be read over and over again; they are a real monument of the literature of the nineteenth century. His judgment on every subject of which he treats may be considered definitive.

It was well known to all the friends of Sainte-Beuve that the Juste Oliviers played a considerable part in his life, and that he was in very intimate relations with them from 1837, the date of his first journey to Switzerland, to 1869, the date of his death. For family reasons, the Oliviers always refused to publish the letters which they had received from him. They only allowed M. Jules Troubat, Sainte-Beuve's secretary, to use some of them in 1876. Who were the Oliviers? Olivier was born October 18, 1807, at Eysins, a small village in the canton of Vaud. He was of French origin; his family had settled in Switzerland during the wars of religion. His parents were peasants, but educated peasants, who gave him a good education. He showed at an early age much disposition for literature and poetry. He came to Paris during the Romantic period, and made there the acquaintance of Alfred de Vigny, Alfred de Musset, and Sainte-Beuve. He relates in his journal:

"Encouraged by the friendly reception of certain men of letters to whom I had been recommended, I resolved to triumph over my timidity and pay a visit to Sainte-Beuve. I arrive at No. 19 in the Rue Notre-Dame-des-Champs. I ask for M. Sainte-Beuve. An old lady [his mother] appears at a window, and, after some objections, she screams: 'Sainte-Beuve, are you in?' I see a face behind a litle window. The staircase is shown to me. I knock; a young man opens—it is Sainte-Beuve. I tell him that I came by the advice of a journalist, whom I name. This recommendation was not very powerful. 'C'est un très bon garçon,' answered he. . . . The conversation turned on the literary questions of the day, and afterwards on Geneva and the Genevese, of whom Sainte-Beuve had known several. M. Sainte-Beuve does not always end his phrases; he throws them about and does not seem to care for them to the close. This gives his conversation a jerky character. . . . As for his exterior, I will add that he is of middle size and that his face is not very regular. His pale, round head is almost too big for his body. His nose is large and ill made; his eyes lucid; . . . his hair reddish and very abundant. . . . In short, Sainte-Beuve is not handsome, not even passable. However, his face has nothing disagreeable about it, and even ends by pleasing."

After the Revolution of 1830, Olivier returned to Switzerland, where he became professor of history at the Academy of Lausanne. He addressed to Sainte-Beuve in 1835 a volume of poems, 'Les Deux Voix,' with a letter in which he invited him to make him a visit. We have Sainte-Beuve's answer to this amiable offer. Juste Olivier was already married to a very distinguished person, Caroline Ruchet, who belonged to one of the best families of Vaud, and who had been his collaborator; she had had a hand in the publication of 'Les Deux Voix.' Two years afterwards, Sainte-Beuve accomplished his project of visiting the Oliviers. He had a double reason for leaving Paris: it was the time of his rupture with Victor Hugo, of which the causes are well known, and, his mind having turned to a new channel, he was meditating a long study of Port Royal and the Port Royalists. Switzerland was a not inappropriate place for severe study, as well as a suitable asylum for one who had gone through a dangerous moral crisis.

Sainte-Beuve remained some time at Aigle, as the guest of the Oliviers. He prepared there the first outlines of the lectures which he proposed to give on Port Royal. He had long been collecting documents of all sorts for the work. There was some difficulty in obtaining for this subject the approbation of the Council of State and of the Academic Council; there was always a little jealousy of foreign lecturers, and the subject seemed rather special. The lectures lasted six months, during all of which time Sainte-Beuve remained the guest of his friends. He found with them what he had never had—a home, and the pleasures of domestic life. Madame Olivier was no ordinary woman: she was handsome; she was

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a person of character; she had received from nature, Sainte-Beuve once said, the organization of a Roman. Doudan, who was a good judge and whose correspondence is so charming, loved in her a mixture of candid simplicity and great superiority of mind.

In 1843, Olivier bought the *Revue Suisse* and asked Sainte-Beuve to send him Parisian *chroniques;* and the offer was accepted on condition that these chronicles should not be signed. Sainte-Beuve called them his poisons. "It is quite true," says the editor, "that they bear the trace of his little jealousies and of his little dislikes. He used his wit chiefly against his former Romantic friends, against Victor Hugo and Vigny." These anonymous chronicles add nothing to the reputation of Sainte-Beuve, but sometimes explain enigmas. Sainte-Beuve was, in fact, a very mixed character; it is difficult to imagine that the author of the verses which he wrote at the time of his passion for Madame Victor Hugo was the same man who wrote the admirable volumes on Port Royal. The collaboration of Sainte-Beuve with the *Revue Suisse* lasted three years—as long as Olivier directed it. He was forced to abandon its control in 1845 after the revolution which took place in the Canton of Vaud, and went to Paris to settle there definitively. He undertook to conduct a boarding-school. Sainte-Beuve presented him to Marmier, to George Sand, to Madame Desbordes-Valmore, to Madame Récamier.

Juste Olivier seems to have been a marked victim of revolutions. That of 1848 was a great blow to him, and he thought for a moment of emigrating to the United States in company with Sainte-Beuve. He remained, however, in Paris, where a professorship was given him in a school of administration founded after 1848. In the meantime Sainte-Beuve went to Liège to give lectures on Chateaubriand, which were afterwards published in book form. Juste was what the Italians call an "infelice." The school of administration was suppressed; he had to give private lessons, and finally to work as a proofreader in the printing-office of one of his compatriots. Sainte-Beuve's relations with Olivier and his wife had suffered a change, which the former attributes to his great work, which "forbade all worldly or even friendly relations." Juste Olivier gives another version of the growing coldness. He intimates that Sainte-Beuve had changed all his views on religious matters. "He once exclaimed that I should have no more to do with Methodists [the Olivers had very Methodistic ideas]"; and when his friend recalled to him so many fine religious pages in his 'Port Royal,' he said to him that it was all a play of his imagination. He added that he had never forfeited his freedom of mind. In fact, Oliver had ceased to be his "conscience"—such was the name he had once given him.

After a period of long coldness, they met at the funeral of Madame Desbordes-Valmore, their common friend. In a moment, the ice was broken. Sainte-Beuve took Olivier in his carriage, which followed the hearse, and said to him: "We will not revert to the past, but we will again be like the fingers of a hand." Two years before his death, October 21, 1867, Sainte-Beuve sent to Olivier the last edition of his 'Port Royal,' with these words: "To whom can I better offer these volumes than to you, the prime author of the circumstances in which the work could be born?" This is also what gives a peculiar interest to the correspondence just published. It was through the Olivier household that Sainte-Beuve was drawn into the atmosphere of Methodism, of serious and pure Christianity, which was the essence of Jansenism. This Jansenist experience had a lasting influence on Sainte-Beuve; he did not always conform his conduct to the Jansenist ideal, but his intellect, which was of the highest order, always bore the effects of the teaching of the purest minds of the seventeenth century. The correspondence cannot be analyzed; all its charm is in its minuteness and, to a great extent, its looseness. I will therefore not even give extracts from it, and will simply recommend the reading of it to such of Sainte-Beuve's admirers as wish to be completely acquainted with his versatile mind and the development of his remarkable individuality.

Correspondence.

A LABOR ARMY FOR THE PANAMA CANAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The fact that disease is rife on the Isthmus of Panama is becoming generally known, and is evidently responsible for an increasing difficulty in securing competent clerical assistance and efficient labor in sufficient quantity. Unless prompt measures be taken, the work will suffer in the same manner as it did under the French. In spite of engineering incompetence and of gross misapplication of funds, the fact remains that the French company would have made an appreciable impression upon the Isthmus, in the form of work done, but for the insurmountable difficulties which it then experienced in maintaining an adequate force of laborers. The West Indies, Africa, and the Far East were drawn upon in vain. The mortality was so frightful that the efforts to suppress the truth did not prevent a knowledge of the terrible conditions existing on the Isthmus from reaching the commonest workmen in foreign lands, deterring them from risking their lives at Panama. It seems that conditions under American administration promise to be little, if any, better.

The negro is, more nearly than any other people in the world, racially indisposed to contract those diseases which most readily attack men engaged in hard labor in the tropics. Of other races only occasional individuals are immune; some cannot withstand tropical influences at all; while a fair proportion can render efficient service for a period, if under proper control as to food, drink, rest, and labor. Acclimatization is probably never accomplished. What we call acclimatization consists in an adaptation of habits to tropical conditions sufficient to maintain a fairly vigorous healthfulness, or the state in which resistance to maladies everywhere is greatest. It is largely a matter of white corpuscles. Malaria can be prevented; or, if contracted, can be cured, when not complicated with other diseases. Yellow fever to a certain extent is preventable, but there is a limit to the efficiency of measures of prevention under such circumstances as those attending the employment of a vast horde of ignorant and intractable laborers engaged in the work of excavation and construction in tropical swamps and jungles. Smallpox can be eliminated with comparative ease. But hepatitis, with its large train of concomitant ills, is the great tropical ogre, against which no prophylactic charms will completely and unerringly prevail. All northern races are predisposed to it in the tropics. Sooner or later, with rare exceptions, all men not of tropical ancestry will succumb to it. The only remedy is to leave, and to do so promptly. Seldom can a permanent cure be effected while the patient persists in tropical residence.

But by careful diet, careful avoidance of chill, ample rest, and abstention from every form of dissipation, the evil may be deferred. These are conditions requiring the direction of men of knowledge and experience, and, to be made effective, absolute obedience to prescribed regulations must be enforced. Persuasion will not accomplish it, and fear is not enough to prevent men taking the risk of infraction of hygienic laws. The only effective agent is military discipline, extended over laborers enlisted under oath of obedience to officers whose orders will touch every act of their lives. Our board of army surgeons is the proper group of Government officers for establishing a suitable system which would insure reasonable protection to the lives of those enlisted for such service. Under such a régime, the guarantee of at least partial immunity from the most aggravating predisposing causes of the worst tropical maladies would inspire confidence, and immensely facilitate the recruiting of efficient labor. It is relatively easy to determine by a medical examination whether a man is probably predisposed constitutionally to the great tropical disease, and unfit subjects could be rejected, thus lessening the future difficulties of hospital service, and forestalling a crippling of the working force in the field.

The building of an Isthmian Canal is of such importance to our nation that we cannot afford to go on in the steps of predecessors whose methods were demonstrated to be wrong, if better measures can be adopted. Every other problem connected with the piercing of the Isthmus sinks into insignificance beside this of providing a sufficiency of brawn and muscle to drive and supplement the mechanical devices, which alone will not do the work. Men we must have, men in good physical and mental health, not afraid of death lurking in every shadow, not given over to dissipation through abandon, as so often happens in communities exposed to an ever-present danger from disease.

It may be an innovation to suggest enlisting laborers under a military system for digging a canal, but it is surely as rational to enlist an army to conquer a great route of commerce by sanely regulated industry as to enlist soldiers to do the work of national defence and to break down foreign walls and wills for national expansion.

Courtenay De Kalb.

July 8, 1905.

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SPECIAL ASSIZES FOR SPEEDY TRIAL OF A NEGRO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A few weeks ago, in examining some papers in the Massachusetts Archives at the State House in Boston, I stumbled on a document which is of importance to those interested in the history of lynching in this country. As the document reached Dr. Cutler too late to be incorporated into his work on 'Lynch-Law,' reviewed in the *Nation* of yesterday, perhaps you will think it worth preserving in your columns. The document is dated August 26, 1734, and is taken from the Council Records, ix., 538:

"Forasmuch as London (a Negroe Man) is imprisoned in His Majtys Goal in Boston for a Rape committed on the Body of Sarah Clark, and the Time appointed by Law for Holding the Court of Assize and General Goal delivery for the County of Suffolk is at a great distance, and the keeping him till that time will occasion great charge and may hazard his Escape.

"Advised and Consented, that a precept be made out to the Justices of the said Court to hold a Special Court of Assize and General Goal delivery, for the Trial of the said London as soon as may be conveniently."

Albert Matthews.

Boston, July 20, 1905.

HOT BREAD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The negro question may be settled, the results of the war may be forgotten, but there is one subject that will forever absolutely divide the North and the South—hot bread. You may travel up and down the whole of Europe, and never be asked to eat hot bread; you cannot find a hotel in the North where there is not good cold bread to be had, mostly French; but in the South, hot bread three times a day is still the universal form in which the cereal grains are consumed. It is purely a Southern invention; it may be considered the South's contribution to the foods of the civilized world, and no doubt it will be clung to as long as time endures. Even the border cities are faithful to it. A European who had to be careful of her digestion, looking for a *pension* in Washington, made inquiries, in a general way, as to the character of the table, and in every instance the answer began: "We have five kinds of hot bread for breakfast. . . ." In Baltimore you may find a fine hotel (the Stafford) where absolutely nothing but hot bread is to be had for breakfast, in spite of the fact that they get a delicious French bread later in the day. We are reminded of this subject in connection with an editorial on race suicide in a late number of the *Woman's Medical Journal* (Chicago). The writer mentions incidentally that the median age (that is, the age which exactly divides the population into halves), twenty-three for the whole country, is higher in the North Atlantic and Western States than in the South Atlantic and Southern States, and says: "This fact indicates that, with all the severity of Northern winters, followed by inclement springs, the climate at the North is more favorable to health than is that of the Southern States, with all their mildness." But it is seldom safe to conclude anything from statistics, and in this case it may well be questioned whether it is not hot bread that is responsible for the too early taking off of the population in the South.

P. Q. R.

THE NORDENSKJÖLDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A reviewer in the last number of the *Nation* refers to Dr. Otto Nordenskjöld, author of 'Antarctica' and leader of the Swedish Antarctic expedition, as "son of the late illustrious commander of the *Vega* expedition." He is his nephew. Prof. Adolf Nordenskjöld had two sons: Gustaf, who died in 1895, and Erland. Gustaf Nordenskjöld visited this country in 1891 and investigated the pueblo regions of Colorado; the results of his investigations were embodied in a volume entitled 'The Cliff Dwellers of Mesa Verde,' published in Stockholm in 1893. Erland Nordenskjöld has visited both South and Central America, and published several contributions to American archæology. Otto Nordenskjöld took part (as leader) in an expedition to the Straits of Magellan in 1895-1897, and has described the journey in a volume in Swedish entitled 'Fran Eldslandet,' as well as in a volume of scientific results: 'Wissenschaftliche Ergebnisse der Schwedischen Expedition nach den Magellansländern 1895-1897.' He also visited Klondyke a few years ago.

A. G. S. J.

Chicago, July 17, 1905.

Notes.

A Life of Farragut, by John R. Spears, is next in order of the "American Crisis" series of George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia.

On the first of May last began the initial year of the Paris Société des Textes Français, whose object is "to reprint texts published in the last four centuries, and to print for the first time inedited texts of the same period." The President is Prof. Gustave Lanson of the University of Paris. The annual subscription is ten francs, life payment two hundred francs; entitling members to the annual output. Accuracy is the prime aim, but with increased support criticism may be attempted. Those who wish to join should address the general secretary, M. Huguet, 30 rue Guilbert, Caen (Calvados). The treasurer is M. Roques, 4 Boulevard Saint-Germain, Paris.

In Dr. Thwaites's series of reprints, 'Early Western Travels, 1748-1846' (Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.), James's 'Account of an Expedition from Pittsburgh to the Rocky Mountains'—commonly known as Long's, from the commander, an appointee of Calhoun's when Secretary of War—has just reached its conclusion in a fourth volume. This is a very animated and well-written narrative, and an authoritative source of information about the Indian tribes encountered on the journey.

Since we last reported on the handy "Biographical Edition" of R. L. Stevenson's Writings, a dozen volumes have been added to the previous total. The typography is clear, and each work has a brief introduction from Stevenson's widow.

Taine's 'Voyage aux Pyrénées,' Balzac's 'Une Ténébreuse Affaire,' and De la Landelle's 'Une Haine à Bord' are among recent numbers of the "Oxford Modern French Series" issued by the Clarendon Press (New York: H. Frowde). These, as we have before had occasion to remark, are unpretentious yet not unattractive volumes.

Misses Porter and Clarke's commendable reissue of the Shakspere First Folio (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), with reinforcement of notes, introduction, glossary, variorum readings, and selected criticism, proceeds with "Hamlet." This makes a compact little volume of 339 pages, and we do not wonder that the growth of material has led the publishers to raise the price hereafter, which is still moderate.

Mr. James Bryce's 'Studies in History and Jurisprudence,' published four years ago, has been made a subject of excerpt for a thin volume on 'Marriage and Divorce' and a thicker (pp. 341) on 'Constitutions' (New York: Henry Frowde). The six essays of the latter collection embrace the discussion of Flexible and Rigid Constitutions, the Action of Centripetal and Centrifugal Forces on Political Constitutions, and the concrete examples of Primitive Iceland, the United States Constitution as Seen in the Past, Two South African Constitutions, and the Constitution of the Commonwealth of Australia. It need not be said that this group contains highly profitable reading, even in the chapters which are now purely historical. That on Australia foresees the importance of the labor questions without picturing such an approach to domination as we are now witnessing, with results strikingly set forth last week by our correspondent at Sydney. We are sure that the American public which will appreciate these volumes would have preferred a more elegant make, American though it be.

Farmer and Henley's 'Slang and its Analogues,' filling seven volumes, has been usefully abridged to one, 'A Dictionary of Slang and Colloquial English' (London: Routledge; New York: Dutton). Whether anything has been added or not is not stated; the latest date of reference that we have observed is 1884, but Kaffir, in the sense of mining share, appears. Jingo is of course here; and leading political Americanisms like Barnburner, Carpet-bagger, Gerrymander (with careful noting of the hard *g*). Granger, and Mugwump, with Molly Maguires, are to be found correctly defined. We miss the Canadian legislative term of postponement of a measure, Hoist. The curious will find under Screwed two columns of synonyms for "drunk," besides those under other designated heads. The printer's work has been well done.

Comparatively few remain of those who in childhood were delighted by the early editions of Harriet Martineau's tales for children—'The Crofton Boys,' 'Settlers at Home,' 'Feats on the Fiord.' Such, and we hope many of the rising generation, will welcome a charming edition of the last-named, lately, by Dent & Co., added to their series of "Temple Classics for Young People." It is beautifully illustrated. We trust the favor it will meet with will induce the publishers to complete the series of Miss Martineau's tales in the same form.

The *Archæologia*—the tracts of the London Antiquaries (Burlington House)—are justly styled miscellaneous. The last number (Second Series, vol. ix.) contains matter to suit most lovers of antiquity. The classical historian cannot fail to be interested in the excavations at Caerwent (Monmouth-

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shire), the Romano-British Venta Silurum, or in the discovery on the site of Newgate of yet another portion of the Roman Wall of London. The lover of architecture for itself will find more to attract him in Mr. Hill's paper on "Some Post-Visigothic Churches in Spain," or in that of Mr. St. John Hope on the west front of Wells Cathedral. The virtuoso will be glad to read what Mr. Waller has to tell him of the "Hauberk of Chain Mail" and its conventional representations, or, still more fascinating, Mr. Dalton's account of one of the treasures of the British Museum, the famous Crystal of Lothair, with its scenes from the story of Susannah and its inscription, in somewhat doubtful Latin, "Lotharius rex Francorum fieri jussit." Last but not least, the student of mediæval manners and customs or of the development of trade and commerce, not to mention the lawyer and pedigree-hunter, will find valuable information in "Some Chancery Proceedings of the 15th Century" and the "Records of the Manor of Durringdon," by Mr. Trice Martin and Mr. Kirby.

It will doubtless be remembered by many readers of the *Nation* that the year 1904 was signalized by two exhibitions of Sienese art—the one in Siena itself, the other in London, under the auspices of the Burlington Fine Arts Club. In connection with these, a valuable book has just been published by the Commissione Senese di Storia Patria, under the title of 'Arte Antica Senese,' in two volumes, consisting of an aggregate of nearly 500 pages, and containing more than 180 excellent illustrations, many of which it is quite impossible to obtain elsewhere (Siena: L. Lazzeri). To students of mediæval Siena the names of the writers of the various articles are of themselves a sufficient guarantee of the uniform excellence of the work; while the list of the contents will show the extent of the ground which has been covered. It is, in fact, a book which no one who is interested in Sienese art, in any of its branches, can afford to do without. The respective section titles are: The Architecture of Mediæval Siena and of her Ancient Territory, by A. Canestrelli; The First Master of Sodoma, by R. H. Hobart Cust; Sano di Pietro and Messer Cione di Ravi, Count of Lattaia, by L. Zdekauer; The Works of Two Old Sienese Painters at Borgo Sansepolero, by E. Franceschi-Martini; Simone Martini and Petrarch, by P. Rossi; The Art of the Wood-Carvers in Siena, before the Statute of 1426, by V. Lusini; Giovanni da Siena, by C. Ricci; The Communal Palace of Siena, by F. Donati; Sienese Art at Pisa, by F. Lupi; The Monte dei Paschi, and the Works of Art therein Contained, by N. Mengozzi; The Cathedral of Massa Marittima—The High Altar, the Work of the Sienese Flaminio del Turco, by L. Petrocchi; and The Goldsmiths of Siena and their Works, by A. Lisini.

The learned librarian of the Arnamagnæan collection of manuscripts in the University Library of Copenhagen has just finished the "Palæographic Atlas" of whose beginnings we had occasion to make mention a year or two ago. The Commissioners of the Arnamagnæan Fund issued the first (Danish) section in 1903, and the second (Old Norwegian-Icelandic) now makes its appearance. Together with the catalogue of the manuscripts contained in the Arnamagnæan collection (published in 1894), and that of the Old Norwegian-Icelandic manuscripts in the Great Royal Library of Copenhagen, etc. (published in 1900), these two volumes of reproductions aggregate an apparatus for the study of ancient Scandinavian booklore and chirography of which any nation, literature, or author might well be proud. The size of the present volume corresponds closely with that of the former—37 folio phototype plates—and there are reproductions of 53 manuscripts and documents. We have here renderings of the most famous treasures of Old Norwegian-Icelandic literature, such as the 'Grágas,' the fragment of 'Kringla' (the chief manuscript of Snorri's Lives of the Norwegian Kings), the Codex Regius of Saemund's Edda, Odd's Olaf's Saga, 'Fagrskinna,' King's Mirror, 'Laxdoela,' 'Njála,' etc. Owing to the richness of the extant material, it was impossible to embrace in this volume such a span of time as is covered by the Danish section; it ranges from about 1150 to 1300. The editor has prefixed a brief but interesting introduction dealing with the origin and development of the art of writing (in Latin characters) and spelling in Iceland and Norway, a subject which can now be studied at first hand and in chronological sequence. The Carlsberg Fund, a Danish institution somewhat similar to the Carnegie Institute here, has generously promised the editor to defray the expenses of an additional Old-Norwegian-Icelandic section carrying the work down to the fifteenth century.

The English Garden City Association, whose efforts are directed against overcrowding in large cities and the consequent depopulation of the rural districts, have good cause to congratulate themselves on the progress of their scheme. It consists in the developing of new industrial and residential towns surrounded by belts of agricultural land; the unearned increment being retained in each case for the benefit of the inhabitants after payment of 5 per cent. per annum on the capital. The first step towards practical realization was taken, in 1903, when a joint-stock company (The Garden City Pioneer Company, Limited) was started with a capital of £3,000,000 to develop an estate of 3,850 acres situated between Hitchin and Baldock. During the last two years, building, road-making, and other operations have been carried on with vigor, applications for small holdings and for residential and factory sites have come in with greater and greater freqüency, and there is reason to think that, before the close of 1905, the first Garden City will have risen on what a short time back were only the open fields of Letchworth. The exhibition of Cheap Cottages, which is to be held on the estate from the end of July till October, may be counted on to add to the popularity of the undertaking, and to increase still further the demand for sites.

Still another movement for the promotion of physical education in England is a memorial addressed to the Government by the Anthropological Institute, and signed also by Lords Roberts and Avebury, Sir William Ramsay, and many headmasters, praying that an anthropometric survey, a register of sickness, and an advisory committee may be established without delay. Should these measures be adopted it will be known with certainty whether the physique of the population at large is improving or deteriorating. It will also be possible, by comparison of the physique with the environment, to ascertain the influences which are bringing about the changes of physique. The data supplied by the survey will enable the advisory committee, consisting of experts and representatives of Government departments, to arrive at conclusions on which important legislative action can be founded.

Lord Cromer, at a dinner recently given in his honor in London, said that he believed four conditions were essential to the uniform and steady progress of Egypt. The first was that they should not be in a hurry; the second, that Egyptian affairs should be kept out of the dangerous swirl of British party politics. His third condition was that, while every reasonable occasion should be taken to profit by any real aptitude the Egyptians might show for managing their own affairs, great care should be observed in urging Western ideas on the country before the people were ripe to assimilate such ideas. The fourth and last of his conditions was that Egypt should continue to be governed in the interest of the Egyptians themselves. Our administrators of the Philippines would do well to consider carefully this lucid statement of the most experienced and successful of Western rulers over an Eastern people.

Evidently a reaction is setting in among German educators against the tendency, so pronounced during the past ten years, to ease up the work in the secondary schools on the plea that it is too heavy. Repeatedly the Emperor himself has in a very positive way exerted his influence in favor of this tendency. Recently voices of weight, coming from the schools themselves, affirm that this policy does injustice to the gifted pupils; and now a programme has been formally launched, calling for separate schools, "élite schools," for "talented" pupils. The most pronounced supporter of this demand is Dr. J. Petzoldt of the gymnasium at Spandau, in a brochure entitled 'Sonderschulen für hervorragend Befähigte.' From a psychological and pedagogical standpoint, he shows the harm done to the brighter students by compelling them to follow a course that is gauged for the abilities of the mediocre, and tries to prove that a gifted boy could finish the regular course of a full secondary school in six instead of nine years, and thus possibly enter the university at the early age of fifteen or sixteen. The brochure even gives practical hints as to the way in which these special schools are to be conducted. Prof. Bruno Meyer of Berlin, also an educator, discusses this project in detail in a series of articles that have appeared in the scientific *Beilage* of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* (Nos. 141-142). In his estimation, the plan is not so bad, but will meet with great difficulties in being realized. One of the most serious he finds to be securing the proper teaching corps for such special schools; but he believes the problem is permanently raised, and must be worked out by educators. He closes with the question, Who will make the first experiment in this direction?

Many expeditions to observe the coming total eclipse of the sun on August 30 are about setting out, or have already gone. The Lick Observatory has dispatched three parties. The first, at the beginning of the

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track, will establish itself in Labrador; the second in Spain; the third near Assuan, in Egypt. The Naval Observatory, likewise, has sent an eclipse contingent under Admiral Chester, United States Navy, Director. These likewise will divide, one company settling on the northern, another on the southern coast of Spain, while a third occupies Algeria. Harvard College Observatory, represented by Prof. W. H. Pickering, will establish its station in northern Africa, and Professor Todd of Amherst is about sailing for Naples, and ultimately Tripoli in Barbary, whence he hopes for as clear a view of the corona as he was favored with at the same place in May, 1900. Canadian observers from Ottawa and Toronto are en route for the coast and the interior of Labrador.

—In the June number of the *North American Review*, Mr. Frederick C. Penfield, contrasting with much acumen the realized Canal of Suez and that projected at Panama, points out, what all but the wilfully blinded have always perceived, that the latter cannot be expected to make an adequate return on the huge, unknown, and unknowable investment, or, as he phrases it, "to pay directly." To make it pay indirectly, he suggests "the development of a mighty commercial marine that will carry American products to foreign markets, and to new markets, *under the Stars and Stripes*" (the italics are ours). If the passage tonnage is large enough, it would seem that a canal open on equal terms to ships of all nations might be supremely indifferent to the color of the flag those ships carry, but such an obvious inference is lost on the protectionist mind, which finds salvation only in Government assistance. The promoters of an unremunerative Government-built Panama Canal will naturally ally themselves with the shouters for a ship subsidy, and the Frye bill or some similar measure will doubtless be urged with renewed vigor at the next session of Congress. Is it not in order to ask the fundamental question, Of what value will a large mercantile marine prove to the average American? To the capitalist who reaps the benefit of a steamer service of which the margin between profit and loss is covered by a substantial grant of public funds, such a marine needs neither apology nor argument, but what of the workingman? What opportunity does it hold out to him? The fact is, that the sailor's life is one of hardship, exposure, poor food, scanty pay, with practically no ultimate reward. Home life is not for him; he earns low wages, and he toils all his days only to end them too often as the recipient of public charity. Even if he reaches the dignity of captain, he gets, as a rule, less in salary than a good mechanic. There are, of course, exceptions, but they are very few in number. Any doubt as to what the seafaring man may ordinarily expect as the crown of his life's labor will be dispelled by a visit to Sailors' Snug Harbor on Staten Island, where may be found only too many worthy men once proud commanders of clipper ships and now beneficiaries of kind Capt. Randall's wise and noble bequest, without which they would doubtless have to meet their fate in some county almshouse.

—Is there not a moral and a humanitarian side to this movement in favor of a mighty commercial marine "under the American flag"? Why induce boys to adopt a livelihood wherein the prizes are so few and the deprivations so many, when employment on shore holds out to the industrious the certainty of good wages, the benefits and pleasures of home, the possibility of great achievement in life and of honorable and useful distinction? When Carnegies, Vanderbilts, and Rockefellers (to use only the most sordid standard in illustration) are produced on blue water, then it will be time to wish our sons to follow the sea, but until then is it not well to let the Swedes, Norwegians, Germans, British, and Italians dispute among themselves a field which it is not worth our American while to seek to occupy? If they are willing to carry our goods at rates too low for the maintenance of an American ship, why not let them do so and apply our savings in money and in men to the development of our own land and the bettering of those who people it?

—Dr. Bradley carries on to Matter the letter M of the Oxford English Dictionary in its July instalment (H. Frowde). For the first time in a long while, a little batch of "additions and emendations" is affixed to the preface that reviews the tract under survey; all but one of them relating to that tract. At the beginning stand the rubrics Mandragora and Mandrake, and it is a notable illustration of the way in which the classical literature has filtered down in our tongue (as in every other) that the quotations under both the above heads might serve very well as a *précis* of Mr. Charles Brewster Randolph's learned paper on "The Mandragora of the Ancients in Folk-Lore and Medicine," which one may turn to in volume 40 of the Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences (January, 1905). Mandrake in the sense of 'May-apple' is an Americanism, and in this cosmopolitan section there are more American words than Celtic (but two of these in all). Mash and Masher are probably ours, but they have found ready acceptance in England, as has Materialize, both in the spiritistic sense and in the journalistic, to 'come off.' Rarely, says Dr. Bradley, is Manilla, attributively employed, as before cheroot, copal, hemp, etc., spelt with a single *l* (Dampier used but one in 1697); but we doubt if since 1898 the American usage has not been in conformity with the spelling of the name of the city. Proper names in such adjectival use abound as usual in this Dictionary: Marconi, with Marconigram, etc.; and Mr. H. G. Wells's Martian, for an up-to-date example, drawn from fiction. The "Man in the Moon," the invisible bursar in English election bribery, is here, together with the "Man of the World"; but we miss the "Man in the Street." Dickens contributes to the vocabulary the Marchioness. Whether one shall write Marquis or Marquess, frankly depends on the whim of the noble bearer of the name or the "style" of the journalistic proofroom. The female sex comes in for many opprobrious epithets, like Mankeen, the obsolete Mankind (in Fletcher, "a plaguy mankinde girle"), Mannish, and the like; and we find Maritality, correlative of Uxoriousness. Mascott, the luck-bringer, we derive from Audran's opera of December 29, 1880. Massage and its kindred formations date from 1876. There is interesting heraldic discourse under Martlet. Under Master we read: "The obscured pronunciation [*mister*] resulting from proclitic use doubtless began while the written form *master* was still commonly employed. Before the end of the seventeenth century, the abbreviation *Mr.* . . . had come to be restricted to the use in which the pronunciation was obscured, and to be the only permitted mode of writing the word in that use. Thenceforward *master* and *Mr.* were practically two words, distinct both in function and in form. In this Dictionary," concludes Dr. Bradley, "the abbreviation *Mr.*, in all its historical varieties of use, will be treated in its alphabetical place"—no doubt, with a cross-reference from Mister.

—Ralph D. Paine opens the August *Century* with a paper on American and English rowing, the first of a series on the "Spirit of School and College Sport." Any fair description of college rowing in the two countries must, of course, bring out a contrast not at all palatable to American college men who have held themselves above the victory-at-any-price spirit now dominant in American athletics; but sustained and severe public criticism is evidently the only path towards reform, and the *Century* is to be commended for lending its most conspicuous pages to the work. Manager Stone concludes his complacent papers on the Associated Press with an account of its service in recent wars, claiming for its agents a decided superiority over the numerous special correspondents sent out, whether in promptness in securing and transmitting important news or in the literary quality of their work. In the second of his papers on the Electric Railway, Frank J. Sprague gives a very vivid account of the construction and installation at Richmond, Va., of the first successful experiment in electric traction on a large scale, an experiment which entailed an immediate loss of $75,000 to Mr. Sprague's company, but proved highly profitable in the end, since it demonstrated the commercial feasibility of the system. It is hard to realize that this was less than twenty years ago. Mr. Sprague also describes his conception and working out of the "multiple unit" system, by which a train unit is made up of a number of individual cars, each complete in all respects and all capable of being operated simultaneously from any master switch on any car. Hugh Spender writes of Lady Warwick's experiment in giving practical agricultural education to English girls at Studley Castle. The graduates of her school have stood the supreme test of ability to drop at once into self-supporting positions in the special line for which they were fitted. Rudyard Kipling appears among the short-story writers—an event not quite so common in American magazines as it used to be.

—The American Library Association held its twenty-seventh annual meeting, July 4-8, in Portland, Oregon. As Mr. John Cotton Dana writes to us, it represented very broadly the whole country. The delegates who came by special train from the East, about 150 in number, were supplemented by other small parties from the Middle West and the South. The Pacific Coast itself gathered 150 more from widely scattered points in Washington, Oregon, and California. The group on the special

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train during the seven full days of the journey became almost a library conference on wheels. The result of this naturally appeared in the meetings themselves, which not only were very well attended (in the general sessions, ranging from 250 to 400), but were marked by rapid transaction of important business and forcible discussion. The librarians of State libraries now have an independent organization. The presentation of amendments to the constitution of the American Library Association whereby independent bodies, of a kindred nature, may be affiliated to it, one of the most important events of the meeting, was the result of the wish of this body of State librarians to retain their independence while keeping in close touch with the parent body. This step marks the great advance which State libraries have made in recent years. They have, very generally, escaped from politics, have efficient officers, preserve carefully State documents and records, and enter into the public-library movement in their respective States. The public-library commissions of the several States will very possibly follow the State librarians in forming an independent body affiliated with the American Library Association. The league which they have founded for coöperative work contains good possibilities, especially in the publication of material of value to the small library. This again led to the natural request that they should be represented on the Publishing Board of the Association. Also very significant of the growth and broadening of the librarian's field was the vote authorizing the ex-presidents of the Association to form the American Library Institute, a body limited to 100 members, which shall meet once or twice each year solely for the discussion of the broader questions of librarianship. Such a body may hope to have a strong influence on such movements as that for international coöperation in bibliography in all its phases; a movement which a report read at the conference shows has not yet made any worthy progress. The papers and discussions at the several meetings were planned to cover the field of library work very generally, in the hope that they would thus be most useful to the varied activities represented (in most cases in their earlier states) by the libraries of the Pacific Coast. The evidence was abundant that the meetings themselves, and still more the zeal shown by the presence of 200 library workers from the East and Middle West, gave to the friends of libraries on the Coast all the interest and stimulus they had hoped for. The travellers visited Tacoma and Seattle as well as Portland, and found Western hospitality all that its reputation promised. Portland is of the best type of American city; substantial, not in undue haste to grow, and wearing already its few short years with much dignity. Little time was granted the delegates to view the Exposition, but a brief look at it approved it as charmingly picturesque, amply large for its purpose, and nowhere overstrained. If expositions are with this one to be withdrawn from the world for a time, then the exit is most gracefully made.

—In his very interesting preface to the 'American Bibliography,' Mr. Charles Evans speaks of the title-page of a book as corresponding to the face of a man, exhibiting characteristic features, which it is the bibliographer's function to reproduce faithfully. This function of a bibliographer is apparently not appreciated by Miss Nina E. Browne, who, in her 'Bibliography of Nathaniel Hawthorne' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), in no case offers an exact copy of a title-page, and seldom gives a title with even an approach to fulness. It has not been practicable, for the purpose of this note, to check up the various lists composing the volume before us with other bibliographies, or with any collection of Hawthorne books, but we have compared the list of translations with the most accessible trade bibliographies, and the result has been disappointing. In one case the omission of a colon makes the meaning of a title uncertain; other titles indicate unfamiliarity with both the German language and German bibliographical methods; "versasst" for "verfasst," and "für *die* [read *den*] deutschen Jugend," may be misprints; perhaps also "Kunstlein" for "Künstlerin." But "Bibliothek Amerikanische" instead of "Amerikanische Bibliothek" is certainly queer. We miss one French and one German translation: 'Contes du Far-West' (Paris: Boulanger, 1894), and 'Das rote A.,' translated by Margarethe Jacobi (Stuttgart: Lutz, 1897), as well as the 1855 edition of 'La Lettre Rouge A,' and the 1865 edition of 'Le Livre des Merveilles.' No other translations are included than French and German; eleven Scandinavian and seven Dutch can be found in the respective trade bibliographies. The volume consists of a number of lists, mostly alphabetical, and in some cases giving the same information twice and in similar arrangement—a most exasperating method, or lack of method. The object of a bibliography of an author is, we take it, to offer to students of literature an orderly enumeration of his writings, in chronological or systematic sequence, with references to critical sketches and book reviews. Owing to the way in which Miss Browne has arranged her material, it is not possible to gather together, with her help, without the most exacting labor, all the material—editions, translations, and criticisms—of a single one of Hawthorne's writings. Still, as a check-list for collectors, the volume will have some value.

—M. Georges de la Salle, who, during the six months he was with the Russian army as a correspondent, observed five battles and strategic movements, has written 'En Mandchourie' (Paris: Armand Colin), a sketchy account of those operations and their attendant horrors, without adding much to our serious knowledge of the events themselves. Space is given to the floods of intoxicants, to the omnipresent courtesan, to the gaming and other spurious pleasures that draw so deeply upon the Russian officers' personal and professional vigor. The author speaks of regiments with an actual strength of 500, whose muster rolls represent 2,400 in the Siberian and 4,000 in the Russian corps—discrepancies not due to the casualties of war, but to deliberate misrepresentation in peace. Returning from Mantchuria—that is, from actual observation—one can make no estimate without reserving 50 per cent. as a margin of error (p. 150). With a natural and becoming sympathy with his country's ally, M. de la Salle soon distrusts, not the bravery of the rank and file, but everything beyond personal courage that makes up efficiency. Courage is a common masculine attribute; military efficiency is a separate and superior condition. He found little discipline in the higher sense, little of the *esprit* that makes an army a homogeneous weapon in the hands of a master. He writes in the midst of a campaign: "Je suis fatigué d'entendre tant de médisances, de 'scandales,' de critiques, d'infamies même. . . . Que m'importe à cette minute que le général X soit un âne, le général Y un ivrogne, et le général Z un joueur ou un voleur!" (p. 171). In discussing the battle of "Cha-kho" (Shakhe River), after bemoaning the insufficiency of the material and the ineffectiveness of the personnel, M. de la Salle uses in illustration a telegram from Gen. Stackelberg, absent on an extensive and important turning movement, to the commander-in-chief: "La carte de l'état-major, au lieu des montagnes qui s'élèvent devant moi, ne donnait qu'une tache blanche" (p. 172). As the Japanese appear to have guarded against almost every possible contingency, so the Russians seem to have foreseen nothing, and to have trusted to blind luck, to the prestige that belonged to race, and to a numerical superiority in theory which had no foundation in fact. M. de la Salle left the field in December, after the memory of the wounded became "comme une obsession" (p. 191) and the retirement upon Mukden a nightmare of horrors. His happiness in regaining France was intensified by the contrast, but that natural joy was blurred and tarnished by the persistent haunting of sufferings he had left behind. Nor can there be a doubt that as a patriot, outside of and beyond humanitarian considerations, M. de la Salle was disturbed and distressed by the extraordinary exhibition he had witnessed in Asia of the moral weakness and physical inefficiency of the Empire which had been honored with the sentimental friendship and the formal alliance of the Republic.

HUME'S SPANISH INFLUENCE.

Spanish Influence on English Literature. By Martin Hume. London: Nash; Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1905.

Early in 1904, Major Martin A. S. Hume delivered before the University Extension Board of the University of London a course of ten lectures, which he has now rewritten and published under the above title. The theme is attractive, the field is a wide one, and Major Hume comes to his task with the prestige of a successful historian. In turning, however, from serious historical studies to deal with *belles-lettres*, he has made a grave mistake; for the editor of the 'Calendars of the Spanish State Papers' and author of 'The Spanish People,' 'Spain in the Year of the Armada,' 'The Courtships of Queen Elizabeth,' and 'The Love Affairs of Mary Queen of Scots,' seems to have assumed that scrupulous care and first-hand knowledge may be dispensed with in the treatment of literature, however requisite they may be in history. Not that he fails to enter the usual protest against "the misuse of text-books, and particularly literary text-books, by students who think that they are a substitute for the study of originals," nor that he omits to inveigh against "authorities and text-

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books" for "copying each other on minor points without much investigation." Despite such professions, the fact is that even a cursory reading of this volume will reveal that it commits two unpardonable sins: first, that, on points of scanty information, it jumps at brilliant conclusions without an effort to gather adequate facts; and, second, that in matters of minute and detailed learning it generally takes its knowledge bodily from a source nowhere mentioned.

The former sin, and the relatively lighter, may be illustrated from any portion of the work save that dealing with Tudor England. Consider, for example, in chapters five and six, Major Hume's handling of the picaresque novel. His idea of it as a fiction exhibiting "types encountered on a journey" is improper and confusing. For him it is simply the peripatetic novel. He mistakes an accident of form for the essence of the thing. 'Don Quixote' of course falls within this definition, and is so treated along with its imitations; but why exclude from such fellowship 'Pilgrim's Progress' and half the fictions of the world? Of the service of masters by a rascal—the true earmark of the Spanish picaresque tale—not a word is spoken. Roguery, indeed, seems wholly unconnected with the *genre*. Not only are 'Humphry Clinker' and 'The Sentimental Journey' pronounced picaresque, but David Copperfield is called "a sentimental and honest picaro" (p. 182), whatever so palpable a contradiction in terms may mean. Moreover, for Major Hume, any one writing a "novel of movement" is clearly influenced by the Spanish romance of roguery. Thus, Defoe is hailed as the first "who saw the full possibilities of the Spanish form as a satirical vehicle in prose," and his purely native and unsatirical 'Moll Flanders' is declared to be "evidently inspired by the 'Picara Justina'" (p. 181) on the bare knowledge that each celebrates an anti-heroine. 'Robinson Crusoe' alone of peripatetic novels escapes Major Hume's Procrustean picaresque classification. "I regard that as a story inspired by fact, just as Defoe's journal of the plague year was," he says (p. 181), as though this explained anything. On the same page occurs the surprising statement that "Fielding also wrote a poor female Quixote, which showed that he was well versed in Spanish fiction." Of course, Major Hume is thinking not of Fielding, but of Mrs. Lennox's 'Female Quixote'; yet the assumption that because a writer imitates Cervantes's masterpiece he or she must be well versed in Spanish fiction, is even more absurd than the error in name; while the nature of Fielding's actual debt to Cervantes and the picaresque novel—one of the most vital points of Spanish and English literary contact—is never pointed out. Such a mine of Spanish material as 'The English Rogue' of Richard Head and Francis Kirkman receives no notice; Nash's 'Unfortunate Traveller' is said without proof to be "evidently inspired by 'Lazarillo' and its school" (p. 164), although, since 'Lazarillo' was the only Spanish romance of roguery then extant, it certainly had no school; and Nash is unwarrantably alleged to have taken "many of his dramas from Spanish sources." It is discouraging to find 'Gil Blas,' despite the final settlement of its very slight indebtedness to Spanish sources, still maintained "to have been largely inspired by 'Marcos de Obregon'" (p. 174). Le Sage is said to have written "a poor sequel of Don Quixote" (p. 176), a reference presumably to his mere translation of Avellaneda's notorious "Second Part"; and he is further affirmed to have "lived in the French embassy in Madrid for some years at the end of the seventeenth and beginning of the eighteenth century" (p. 176). This is as misleading as the critical judgment that 'Gil Blas' is "Spanish in tone and feeling." In short, in the chapter dealing with picaresque influence, there is scarcely a statement upon which reliance can be placed; and to two centuries and a half of such influence in England are devoted just two and a half pages.

Further illustrations of untrustworthiness in fact or inference, or both, are everywhere ready to hand. The fables of Bidpai and Sendabad are confounded (p. 32); it is implied that Spain was the main distributor to Europe and England of the Oriental apologue (p. 34), that indirectly the "Induction" of the "Taming of the Shrew" derives from "Count Lucanor" (pp. 48, 267) rather than from a common Oriental source, that the personal note in the English Chronicle after the fourteenth century is due to Spanish influence (p. 94). The old attribution of the Portuguese 'Amadis' to Vasco de Lobeyra is repeated, but no reference is made to the earlier Joham de Lobeira, credited by modern scholarship with the lost original (p. 110). Montalvo, the Spanish redactor, is called Montalvan (p. 113), and the fifth book of his work is dubbed the "Sergas de Espalandrin" (p. 114). Spenser's 'Shepherd's Calendar' is said to be "clearly inspired" by the 'Diana' of Montemayor (p. 119), and the more important Italian pastoral influence is passed by with the mere mention of Sannazaro's name (p. 117). Certainly 'Euphues's' style was not "confessedly copied from the Spanish style of Guevara" (p. 163), whatever its indebtedness may have been; and certainly, too, Robert Waldegrave did not translate Granada's 'Spiritual and Heavenly Exercise' in 1600 (p. 225), since he was only a printer reissuing under a new title Richard Hopkins's translation, 'On Prayer and Meditation,' of 1582. Surely, Calderon's 'Alcalde de Zalamea' is the worst possible example that could have been selected as witness to Spanish inability at character portrayal, for how many readers of the play will agree that "the characters are all personifications of fixed qualities, not human beings swayed by complex emotions" (p. 263), or that Crespo is only abstract "innate nobleness in a rustic garb"? One must wonder how the Spanish Jew, Ruy Lopez, "soon after his death" in 1594, could have "certainly figured" in Marlowe's "Jew of Malta" and "Doctor Faustus," when Marlowe himself died in 1593 (p. 275). And the desire to claim more than their due for the Spaniards can alone explain the statement that Webster's "Duchess of Amalfi" (*sic*) "was either taken direct from Bandello's Italian novel of the same name, or from Lope de Vega's dramatization of it (p. 277), for it is well known that Bandello reached Webster through Belleforest's French collection and Paynter's English "Palace of Pleasure." How obviously untrue is it of the theatrical use of "rooms with hidden doors, secret staircases with facilities for the exchange of one personality for another," that "all this was unknown to the classic drama" (p. 283), and that "to this day, when we see what is called a bustling farce, . . . it may with confidence be said that the original initiative of it came from Spain" (p. 284). The assertion that Alexandre Hardy "borrowed plots wholesale from Spanish dramas" (p. 285) is based upon no examination of the facts, for his chief sources are classic and Italian, and but five of his surviving pieces are Spanish in origin, while only two others appear to have been inspired by the Peninsula. In any case, it was not the Spanish drama but the Spanish *novela* and pastoral that influenced him, the 'Diana' having furnished one piece, the 'Novelas' of Diego Agreda y Vargas two, and the 'Novelas' of Cervantes three. (Cf. Ernest Martinèche, 'La Comédie Espagnole en France de Hardy à Racine,' 1900.)

But why multiply examples of misstatement when Major Hume is as surprising to the scholar in what he omits as in what he says? To deal with Spanish mysticism and its influence in England and say nothing of Crashaw, to consider 'Amadis' and not mention Southey, to speak of picaresque influence and not name 'Jonathan Wild the Great' or 'Ferdinand Count Fathom,' to trace the descent from 'Don Quixote' and not refer to 'Sir Launcelot Greaves' or to any translator of the book save Shelton, to offer a chapter on the literature of travel and forget Purchas, and, in discussing the drama, to give a few hit-or-miss references to mere plot borrowings which might easily have been amplified by a reading of Ward's 'English Dramatic Literature'—this is not to write the history of Spanish influence on English literature. Moreover, the work on its English side is practically confined to a study of Tudor times; for of its 316 pages not more than 16 deal with Peninsular inspiration in any other period.

The reason for this disproportion will be explained, and the second sin of the author made manifest, if the reader will turn to a volume published in 1899, 'Spanish Literature in the England of the Tudors,' by J. G. Underhill. From this source, names and titles, facts and ideas have been bodily appropriated without acknowledgment wherever Major Hume deals definitely with his subject. Indeed, it is not too much to say that he adds nothing to the information contained in Mr. Underhill's treatise beyond the identification of Antonio Perez with Shakspere's Don Adriano de Armado (p. 273). A few citations of typical parallel passages will indicate the relationship between Major Hume and his unquoted authority.

HUME.	UNDERHILL.
"His (Nicholas) first translation was a little tract from the Spanish, called *Strange and Marvellous Newes lately come from the great Kingdom of China in a Letter sent from Mexico to Spain.* But in 1578 he issued a more important book, etc." (p. 191).	"His (Nicholas) first publication was a little tract of six leaves, entitled the *Strange and marveilous Newes lately come from the great kingdome of Chyna*, and was taken, he explains, from a letter sent by a merchant from Mexico to Spain, . . . but he completed a more elaborate undertaking in the next year (1578), etc." (p. 163).
"Osorio's reputation as a scholar was as great as had been that of Juan Luis Vives in the previous generation" (p. 230).	"The treatises of Osorio da Fonseca, however, which attained a name in the latter half of the sixteenth century as great as that of those of

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"Elizabeth herself cared nothing for Spanish Protestantism, but was glad to welcome Spaniards who had quarrelled with their own king, her mortal enemy. Anything to wound Philip was a delight to her. . . . But very different were the views of the more rigid school of the Protestant bishops and clergy. To them the presence of a Spaniard who acknowledged fervently the truth of Protestantism was a confirmation of their own doctrines" (p. 235).

"Lady Bacon was violently angry that her son Francis should be so friendly with him (Perez): 'A proud, profane, costly fellow, whose being about him I verily fear the Lord God doth mislike' " (p. 269).

"Then Sir Francis Bryan, Henry VIII.'s favorite, translated another of Guevara's books called *Dispraise of the Life of a Courtier* (*Menosprecio de la Corte y Alabanza de la Aldea*), which was afterwards republished as *Looking Glasse for the Court*" (p. 56).

"When Philip II. came to England to marry Queen Mary, several of his courtiers wrote accounts of what they saw, and the main delight of these Spaniards was to identify the scenes of Amadis's and Arthur's imaginary adventures. At Winchester the principal object of interest with them was the so-called Round Table of the knights which still hangs upon the wall of this castle. When the Spanish ambassador in England wished to say something excessively bitter about Elizabeth and her government, he could think of nothing more effective than to compare them with some of the characters in Amadis" (p. 115).

Vives in the earlier half. . . ." (p. 127).

"Elizabeth cared nothing about Spanish Protestantism, and she cared absolutely nothing about its individual exponents. She welcomed them only in order to annoy Philip II. . . . . But the Spanish heretics were heartily welcomed by the English Reformers as desirable recruits on religious and not on political grounds. That a Spaniard, the most orthodox of men, should prefer the reformed doctrines, seemed almost to demonstrate their validity" (p. 186).

"The intimacy between Perez and Francis Bacon was so great that it aroused the fears of Bacon's mother, who wrote to her son Anthony: 'Tho' I pity your brother, yet so long as he pities not himself, but keepeth that bloody Perez —a proud, profane, costly fellow, whose being about him, I verily fear, the Lord God doth mislike . . . surely I am utterly discouraged' " (p. 282).

"Sir Francis Bryan—the favorite of King Henry — (translated) his (Guevara's) *Dispraise of the life of a courtier — the Menosprecio de la corte y alabanza de la aldea.* . . . A reprint was made, however, with some corrections, in 1575, by T. Tymme, minister, under the title of A Lookinglasse for the courte" (pp. 70-71).

"The nobles who followed Philip into England amused themselves with attempting to identify the scenes of the various exploits of Amadis through the country. . . . At Winchester they inspected Arthur's round table, and in their infatuation with the novel they forgot themselves and drew impolite comparisons everywhere between the English ladies and the damsels of the romance" (p. 117).

"When Elizabeth seized and appropriated the treasure which the Genoese bankers were carrying up the channel to the Duke of Alba, . . . Don Guereau de Spes (the ambassador) was put under arrest, and among the principal charges against him was that of wanton disrespect to the queen in referring to her as the Lady Oriana" (p. 303).

Such parallelisms are limited only by the extent of both works and the patience of the reader to ferret them out. Major Hume cannot plead ignorance of his authority, since in 1901 he referred to it at page 403 of his 'Spanish People'; nor can he urge a design to discard here all bibliographical footnotes, for he quotes J. Fitzmaurice Kelly's 'Taylorian Oxford Lecture' (p. 253), and G. H. Lewes's antiquated sketch, 'The Spanish Drama' (pp. 255-6). It is amusing to observe, however, that the former is used merely to confirm the unimportant statement that Lope de Vega's portrait in his lifetime adorned almost every dwelling in the capital, and that the latter is appealed to for an abstract of Lope's 'Star of Seville,' which one would think might have been more safely sought by reading the play itself.

CORYAT'S CRUDITIES.

Coryat's Crudities: Hastily gobled up in five Moneths travells in France, Savoy, Italy, Rhetia commonly called the Grisons country, Helvetia alias Switzerland, some parts of high Germany and the Netherlands; Newly digested in the hungry air of Odcombe in the County of Somerset, and now dispersed to the nourishment of the travelling members of this Kingdome. By Thomas Coryat. [London. Printed by W. S. 1611. Pp. 655.] Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

Seldom has a book at the start been so handicapped as was Coryat's, and that by himself, by his friends, and by the prince-patron to whom he dedicated his 'Observations' (the title 'Crudities' looks like an afterthought). For some two years after his home-stretch he was continually adding to his first-hand waysides set down at many a spot, *currente calamo*, patches (and those seldom small) from the history of every place where he had made an hour's halt; with a score or so of Scaliger epigrams, which, however popular, were not worth as much as the single one of Sannazarro, which he had picked up in Venice. He also, besides many prolix etymologies, stuffed in two long lectures extolling travel as educative, and various bookish scraps. In the next place, his commenders, whether volunteers or on request, who all misunderstood the true inwardness of his Observations, gave him an Irish hoist by conspiring in a serio-comic extravaganza of ironics addressed to him, saturated with exaggeration and misconstruction, yet full of wit or humor that would allure the laziest reader to the end of a hundred pages and half as many more. Thereupon Coryat, seeing this porch to be of quite another order than his building, forthwith cut loose from the incumbrance, and had his embarkation from Dover printed as the first page of his forthcoming Travels. Then followed the unkindest cut—an order from the heir-apparent, who had accepted the dedication of the 'Crudities,' that the multitudinous malversations which had a charm for his boyish taste, still far from the end of his teens, should stand in the forefront of Coryat's first volume, and this order was obeyed to the letter, yet with a pagination which betokened that the extravaganza was no part of Coryat's own book, but a forced marriage and a mismatch. No further could the force of tuft-hunting go, though divinity there hedged a kinglet of whom his father was jealous and for whose death England was soon to put on black. Thus an opéra-bouffe, a grotesque and apish travesty, was made to usher in the earliest earnest and elaborate endeavor to persuade and enable "the most generous young courtiers to travel abroad, and so enrich themselves in what would fit them to do their country better service at home."

This claim of the author, iterated and reiterated, is in keeping with all his pages, even those that look most frivolous. As the first, and long the only, lamp to light up tourists along their lines, the Crudities were taken in hand by all but the foolhardy who chose to go it blind. The *editio princeps* was thus scoured to nothing by perpetual motion, so that, though libraries are said to hold such books embalmed, but one single perfect copy is now shown in all the world, and that entombed in the Chetham Library at Manchester. The Glasgow facsimile, in paper, paging, errata—even the list of errata as corrected by the author and smacking of him—above all, in engravings admired as artistically of the best, tells the story of the *princeps* in a representation beyond what most publishers nowadays have hearts for in their most pretentious issues. The Crudities are green fruits plucked on a tour in 1608 from Dover to Venice, and thence home again, going through France and Lombardy, and back by way of the Swiss, the Rhine, and Holland. The months of absence were scarcely five; about one-third of the time consecrated to Venice, the grand end and aim, and the other two-thirds divided about equally between the routes when outward and inward bound. Brief stops in transit were made at more than forty places. The start was May 14; the finish of the home sail from Flushing, October 3. Locomotion throughout was by land or water—in ship or boat or gondola, in conveyances public or private, riding or on foot, as necessity or securing the purpose of the tourist dictated.

Coryat was a man of initiatives. Both in his life and in his book, initiatives are a cardinal characteristic. He was earliest in time of genuine English travellers. His objective was not getting gain like the merchant's, nor yet the official's who is dispatched on public service, nor the pilgrim's to Compostela, Rome, or Jerusalem, where his soul would be more sure of salvation. Lithgow and Sandys, whose endeavor was nearest his own, did not start until his book was in press, nor did they move along his lines; within that circle none had walked but he. Downward from apostles and birds of passage, friars and others felt that one man is no man, and pilgrimmed two by two at least; but Coryat went forth "a solitary man," without companion or attendant, personally conducted by himself and no other. It was borne in upon his conviction, too, that a footman will see much that is hid from a horseman; and so his enterprise becomes largely a walking tour. The travelling student was thirty-two years old, son of a Somerset rector a hundred miles west of London, and had been three years an Oxford undergraduate,

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His journal day by day was a miracle of minute exactness in specifying dates, hours, miles, modes of advance, and, above all, things and persons met with and impressions stamped upon him. The Continent was then so new to islanders, and our explorer so impressionable, that his jottings were beyond counting. In reading any of his chapters we say how much is here we should have failed to observe. Here is a taste of his tact at pricking into the customs of his own country some flowers of what he learned abroad:

"The Italians do always at their meales use a little forke. For while with their knife which they hold in one hand they cut the meat out of the dish, they fasten their forke which they hold in their other hand upon the same dish, so that whatsoever he be that sitting with any others at meales if he should unadvisedly touch the dish of meat with his fingers from which all at the table do eat, he will give occasion of offence unto the company, as having transgressed the laws of good manners, insomuch that for his error he shall be at the least browbeaten if not reprehended in words. This form of feeding is general in all places in Italy. The reason of their curiosity is because the Italian cannot by any means indure to have his dish touched with fingers, seeing all men's fingers are not alike cleane. Hereupon I myself thought fit to imitate the Italian fashion in this forked cutting of meat," etc.

Afterward in England a familiar friend, seeing him at table equipped with a fork, called him Furcifer (fork-bearer), not without a jocose allusion to its old Roman sense of cross-bearer—a most insulting nickname.

The earmark of Coryat's utterances is a frankness which keeps back nothing. No hiding of his weaknesses—failures in research, in Alpine climbing, in deciphering or in personal encounters—can be detected. Where is there a more winning naïveté than in his making a clean breast of pious frauds, as concerning his stealing a votive doll "only to this end, to bring it home into England to show it to my friends as a token of idolatry"; or while personating a begging friar, hat in hand, asking alms of wayfarers whom he feared as footpads, and so getting a charity from them?

In Venice was focussed more of Coryat's energy as well as time than in all places either on his way thither or backward. Full of love at first sight, he cries: "It ministered to me more variety of delights than mine eyes had ever surveyed before or ever shall if I should spend thirty years together in travelling over the Christian and the ethnick world." We are silent regarding most of his fervors as to this half-celestial city, for his sweet conceits and creations of speech defy résumé, or comparison with what has in three centuries since been said by legions in depicting this fairyland. Within a week after leaving Venice, and before setting foot on the homeland, he had written in his diary of "future travels which I have determined, God willing, to undertake hereafter both in Christendome and Paganisme" (a word which only in 1853 was giving place to Pagandom). No sooner was his book off his hands than he threw off the chains of insular bondage. An unselfish Childe Harold, he felt enfranchisement in that appetite, no more *urbis*, but *orbis*, which had grown by what it fed on. By strides through Stambul, Cairo and the Holy Land to the Aleppo caravan, he pressed on in that convoy to Teheran, and thence on its twin transport far further to the Indus and the Grand Mogul, who in Agra gave him audience and created him a chartered libertine in his domain. As a single-handed explorer he thus conquered a land world which neither Alexander nor Columbus could penetrate. He revelled in Herculean labors till five years after his farewell to England, when his wearied pulse of life stood still at Surat—a most regrettable setback to Occidental knowledge of the extreme Orient.

The Letters to the Seven Churches of Asia, and their Place in the Plan of the Apocalypse. By W. M. Ramsay, D.C.L., Litt.D., LL.D. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1905. Pp. xix., 446.

Somewhere in this volume—unfortunately there is no index, so that it is not easy to trace a subject—Prof. Ramsay says that formerly he accepted the views of those scholars whose tendency is to date New Testament writings in the second or third century A. D.; but since that time his geographical and archæological studies have resulted in a complete change of view in this regard, and led him to revert to a considerable extent to the older traditional view of the dates and authorship of the various books of the New Testament. He has a controversy with *closet scholarship* and the subjective methods of German critics. On the whole he represents in his point of view and his methods a healthy reaction against the excessive tendency to dissection of documents and attribution of minute particles to different sources, authors, and dates, which has marked and marred recent literary criticism of both Old and New Testament. He represents archæological scholarship as over against linguistic scholarship, field work as over against the work of the study, the historical objective method as over against the metaphysical subjective method of treatment. The special field of his labors has been Asia Minor, and probably no scholar of the present day is as thoroughly versed in the archæology and geography of Asia Minor as is Professor Ramsay. He has visited every part of it, has followed the Roman roads, has ransacked villages for inscriptions, and especially has tracked St. Paul and the other early Christian workers from point to point and town to town throughout the whole territory.

In the present volume he applies to the letters to the Seven Churches in the Book of Revelation the same method of archæological, historical, and geographical study and comment which he applied to the Book of Acts, and, to some extent, to St. Paul's Epistles, in his volumes, 'St. Paul the Traveller and the Roman Citizen' and 'The Church in the Roman Empire.' His general position is a sound one, that the New Testament books spring from the circumstances of their period; they think its thoughts and answer the questions which men were putting, in the language used and understood at the time. Hence "their respective dates can be assigned with confidence, provided we understand the history and familiarize ourselves with the thoughts and ways of the successive periods" (p. 53). This assignment is Dr. Ramsay's immediate object, not, however, of the Book of Revelation as a whole, but of the letters to the Seven Churches contained in the first three chapters of that book.

The volume commences with a general discussion of the use of letters in antiquity, of the methods of transmission of letters, official, commercial, and private in the Roman world of the first century, especially in Asia Minor, and then of the use of letters among the early Christians, the part which letters played in the administration of the churches and their relation to one another and in early Christian literature. Our author supposes a pretty thorough organization of the Christian church, particularly in the wealthy province of Asia, at a very early date, and an arrangement for constant epistolary communication among the churches by means of greater and lesser circuits. He concludes that the order of the Epistles to the Seven Churches in the first part of the Book of Revelation was determined by the arrangement of such a circuit for convenience in the distribution of letters, and that the churches addressed were respectively the centres from which information was disseminated to special districts by lesser circuits. Landing at Ephesus, a messenger would move north to Smyrna and Pergamum, thence swinging around toward the east, southeast, and south to Thyatira, Sardis, Philadelphia, and Laodicea, and so returning to the original starting-point, Ephesus. He does not mean that the letters in Revelation were actually separate letters sent to the different churches, or that they possessed even the character of a general circular letter. The letter-writing custom had assumed such importance in the church that when St. John composed the Revelation on Jewish apocalyptic models, combining with that Jewish apocalyptic material other material drawn from the customs and ideas of the people of Asia, the whole colored by its relation to the immediate present and the struggle of the Christian Church with persecuting Rome and the worship of the beast (that is, Cæsar worship), he prefixed to this apocalypse a practical moral exhortation cast in the literary form of letters. These letters, therefore, are not real letters, but a literary device by which John addresses moral instruction to the Christians of the province.

Professor Ramsay agrees as to date with the present trend of criticism, that the Apocalypse derives from the period of the Flavian persecution, in the latter years of the Emperor Domitian—approximately, perhaps, 95 A. D. He discusses in special chapters the nature of the Flavian persecution and the evidences of that persecution in the province of Asia, the character of the imperial religion, the institutions of the various Asian cities, the character of their populations, and especially the place of the Jews in the population of those cities. He then takes up the letters one by one, giving first the history of the city to the church in which the letter was written, then an application of the letter to the conditions of that church. He seeks to show that the author of these letters was intimately conversant with the history and conditions of those churches; that the letters are full of local references, and that those references fit especially the period ending with the Domitian persecution. These chapters constitute, in fact, a sort of archæological-historical commentary on the Epistles to the Seven Churches.

Professor Ramsay's own intimate ac-

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quaintance with the various sites makes his comments peculiarly interesting. He pictures the physical surroundings of each city with a vividness that gives new reality to the references in the letters. One sees how the changeableness of the site of the city of Ephesus, following its receding harbor westward, is reflected in the letter to that city. The royal character of Pergamum; the supposed impregnability of Sardis, towering high above the plain; Philadelphia, suffering from the shock of earthquake; wealthy Laodicea, a city of bankers, the centre of a trade in a peculiar glossy black wool—these all were in the mind of the writer of the Seven Letters and determined the treatment of his theme and his allusions. Further, we have in these letters, as Prof. Ramsay points out, a most valuable commentary on the moral conditions of the Christian Church in the great Asian cities at the time of the Flavian persecution, toward the end of the first century.

The author makes much use of coins, and, so far as they exist, of monuments and other contemporary documents, and the book is a mine of information regarding the history and conditions of the province of Asia. Of course there are some cases where Professor Ramsay, in his archæological enthusiasm, will seem to have discovered in the text references and allusions which do not actually exist, but in general he is sane and keeps himself well under control.

While the author's views with regard to the date of the Apocalypse fit generally into the prevalent current theory, on the question of authorship he is opposed to the prevailing view, and ascribes the book to the Apostle John. The chapters in which he deals with the question of authorship are not as strong as the other parts of the book, because here he is compelled to resort to subjective rather than objective arguments. He pictures St. John as an exile in Patmos, possessed with an authority which leads him to speak as Ignatius and other Christian leaders of a slightly subsequent period never venture to speak. Dwelling in his exile on the conditions of the churches in which he had labored, the persecution in which they were now involved, realizing the meaning of the struggle with the beast of Rome, he pours forth his meditations on the great theme of this struggle, full of assurance of the speedy and final victory of the church, in the mystic form of an apocalypse, preceded by this more practical address to the seven great central churches of the region which had been the scene of his labors. As Professor Ramsay incidentally points out, Ignatius, writing not many years later to some of the very same churches, appears to be quite unacquainted with these letters, which seems strange if they were indeed written by John the Apostle. But the argument from silence is always of a most uncertain character.

Every reader of the Bible will welcome this book as not only extremely interesting in itself, but also full of valuable information with regard to the province of Asia and the conditions and practices of the Christian Church in the latter half of the first century A. D. The text is illustrated by numerous photographs and by drawings made from coins and monuments by Mr. John Hay, Mrs. Ramsay and the Misses Mary and Margaret Ramsay. The printing is careless, because the plates are imperfect. Often three or four letters on a page —generally not more than one in any one word—have disappeared entirely. It is rare to find many consecutive pages without one or more letters missing.

Concordanza delle Opere Italiane in Prosa e del Canzoniere di Dante Alighieri. Pubblicata per la Società Dantesca di Cambridge, Massachusetts. A cura di E. S. Sheldon coll' aiuto di A. C. White. Oxford: University Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1905.

Few learned or literary associations have offered such acceptable proof of their activity as has been afforded by the Dante Society of Cambridge, Massachusetts. Under the leadership of its president, Professor Norton, this small group of Dante lovers has given to the world, in addition to its highly prized annual report, two of the most important works ever issued to facilitate the study of the *altissimo poeta*—Professor Fay's 'Concordance of the Divina Commedia,' published in 1888, and Professor Sheldon's 'Concordanza dell Opere Italiane in Prosa e del Canzoniere di Dante Alighieri,' which has just appeared from the University Press in Oxford. Within a few years is expected a concordance of the Latin writings of Dante, for which much material has already been collected. These three volumes will constitute a complete apparatus for the investigation of the great Florentine's language and style, and will form the nucleus of the outfit of every Dante scholar. It may be well to state here that Fiammazzo's recently printed "complete concordance" of Dante's Italian and Latin works, put forth as a third volume of Scartazzini's 'Enciclopedia Dantesca,' in no way enters into competition with the vocabularies mentioned: it is merely a word-list, accompanied by references, without distinction of uses or citation of passages.

Professor Sheldon's book makes a handsome volume of some 750 pages, in general appearance not unlike the 'Concordance' of Professor Fay, Dr. Moore's Oxford Dante is taken as a basis for the text; the third edition fortunately appeared just in time to be utilized. It is a pity that the miscellaneous lyrics are still treated by Dr. Moore in an uncritical way, as regards both selection and reading. Nothing better, however, is available; and even if Barbi's long-announced publication were at hand, the satisfaction of working with a surer text would not outweigh the advantage of using a uniform edition of all the writings.

The first requisites of a concordance are completeness and accuracy, and these qualities the new work seems to possess in an eminent degree. A cursory investigation discloses no errors save those repaired in the brief two pages of *corrigenda*. Perspicuity, the next essential, is more easily judged; in plan and execution this book is clearness itself. The enormous typographical and other technical difficulties have been intelligently met by editor and printer, and so successfully overcome that the casual examiner would never suspect their existence. On the upper part of each page are the entries from the verse; beneath, separated by a line, are those from the prose. Thus the two lists are carried along together, and the reader is enabled at every step to compare the poetic and the prose usage. Glancing at the most frequent terms, one sees, for instance, that *amore*, which covers seven pages, is preeminently a poetic word, while *uomo* (five pages) and *cosa* (nearly nine) belong rather to prose. To avoid unnecessary bulk, the articles, the verbs *avere* and *essere*, and the commonest pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and adverbial particles are omitted altogether; and a few other constantly recurring words, such as *come, dare, dove, vedere, venire*, which offer no interesting peculiarities of form or use, are followed only by numerical references to all the places where they are found. For every other word we have, with each reference, a quotation long enough to show the construction and meaning. A nice discrimination is revealed in the choice of words entered with or without citations: for instance, *potere* and *volere* have only the references, while *dovere, parere, piacere* are provided with the full apparatus. As one studies the book, it becomes evident that similar careful judgment has been brought to bear upon every question, however great or however small.

While the general plan is carried out with perfect consistency, there is nothing wooden or mechanical in the application of its principles. To adduce a few examples: The plural *egli* and *elle*, the dialect forms *nui* and *vui* find a place, whereas personal pronouns as a rule are excluded; although the verb *essere* is not admitted, such forms as *fia* and *fora* are rightly accorded entrance. The question of duplication and cross-reference is a perplexing one, and has been settled in each case to the greatest advantage of the user of the book. Such words as *virtù* and *spiacere*, which occur also in the quite dissimilar alternative shapes *virtute* and *dispiacere*, have their two or more sets of forms printed separately, each in its proper alphabetical place. On the other hand, such doublets as *cuore* and *core, fiero* and *fero* are not parted; likewise, words with prosthetic *i*, such as *stabile* and *istabile*. *Scusare* and *iscusare* are registered together, but *escusare* has a special entry. It is fortunate, indeed, that the 'Concordanza' has had as chief editor a man in whom the profoundest scholarship and the minutest painstaking have not obscured the light of plain common sense.

The purposes served by such a book are manifold. Its importance for the lexicographer and the philologist is immediately manifest. To the literary investigator it offers inexhaustible opportunity for the study of style. The confrontation of Dante's prose and verse language has already been mentioned; with the help of the Fay 'Concordance' one may also trace the development of the poet's vocabulary; by using this volume as a basis of comparison one may discover how far Dante's diction resembles and how far it differs from that of the other songsters of the *dolce stil nouvo*. Furthermore, the interpretation of many a contested passage will be authoritatively established by this record of Dante's actual practice, and the same evidence will go far toward solving the problem of genuineness in the case of doubtful works ascribed to him. If, for example, the language of the 'Fiore,' which several critics of late have attributed to our poet, be compared with Dante's early usage, as

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disclosed in this book, it may be predicted that the question of authorship will be speedily decided, and decided in the negative. To name the profitable uses to which the volume may be put would be an endless task. It is a pleasure to record the advent of a work of such varied interest and utility, which is at the same time a monument of American scholarship.

An American Girl in Munich. By Mabel W. Daniels. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

"Impressions of a Music Student" is the subtitle of Miss Daniels's book. Its 286 pages contain a record of her experiences in studying music in Munich during the ten months from September, 1902, to July, 1903. The reader must not expect anything resembling Amy Fay's 'Music Study in Germany,' of which about twenty editions have been printed, and which has a great deal of interest to relate about Liszt and other prominent musicians of his day. The stars in the present German galaxy are fewer and smaller, yet Miss Daniels found some very good men from whom to learn the various branches of music, including two whose fame is international—Thuille and Stavenhagen; and those who have heard her compositions aver that she made good use of her opportunities.

Five years ago, she informs us, women were not allowed to study counterpoint at the Munich conservatory; not on moral grounds, apparently, but because the ability of the feminine intellect to cope with double counterpoint in the tenth was questioned. The class is now open to women, but few avail themselves of the opportunity. One victory, however, is to be scored: there are already two women enrolled as professors among the forty on the list. But no woman had ever entered the score-reading class, and Miss Daniels created quite a commotion when she asked to be admitted. After some parley her request was granted, but she felt as if she ought to be labelled, like the denizens of the Zoo: "Rare. From North America." On entering the room where the score-reading class met, she encountered the astonished gaze of thirty pairs of masculine eyes. There was a low whispering, and, when she was asked to take her seat at the piano, she heard one of the men smother a laugh. On this and other occasions she was surprised to see how much deference was paid to professors. Whenever one entered the room, the students all rose and stood until he left, or, by a gracious wave of the hand, gave them permission to resume their seats. But then, in Munich even the street-car conductors touch their hats to entering passengers.

A music student in Munich has advantages for hearing good performances. She can, on presenting the Conservatory certificate at the box-office, get a good parquet seat for half-price. There are disadvantages, too—such as the difficulty of finding a boarding-place. Not that there are not *pensions* enough and to spare; but women or men who are likely to drive away other boarders by their incessant singing, or violin or piano playing, are shunned, or at best relegated to a garret and given a limited time to practise in, say from 9:30 to 12 and from 4 to 7. Miss Daniels also suffered from the German horror of fresh air in rooms, and suggests that a Fresh Air Fund would be a splendid thing over there. The shops, too, did not please her; they are not nearly as finely decorated as ours—with one exception, the sausage store, which is a thing of beauty and a joy forever. Naturally, she has a good deal to say about the gastronomic habits of the Bavarians, and is puzzled for an answer to the question: "How can a people who seem so lethargic, and who make no disguise of their love for the product of the soil and the grape, produce such marvellous, almost superhuman, results in the fields of music and philosophy?"

Miss Daniels's book contains plenty more of these observations and reflections, and there is not a ponderous page, yet she has attempted to enliven her narrative by weaving into it a boarding-house love story. It would have been wiser to study her German and read her proofs carefully; her book *wimmelt* with misprints (see pp. 21, 50, 52, 71, 106, 111, etc.). Is a pfennig really a fifth of a cent?

The Poems of Gaius Valerius Catullus. With an English Translation. By Francis Warre Cornish. Cambridge (Eng.) University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1904.

Mr. Cornish is a classical scholar of no mean reputation and attainments. That may be said in the very first place. He must also be a bold man. That follows from the task he has set himself, to translate Catullus into English prose. The result is what critics are wont to call a "conscientious" version. But, in matters of poetry, an atom of inspiration might outweigh a ton of conscience, and the atom of inspiration seems here to be lacking. Mr. Cornish's translation has been in preparation, he tells us, for many years. We are, therefore, surprised to find in it bits of English that sound very peculiar. What graceful English poet, for example (and Catullus was a graceful Roman poet), would write, "with good help keep safe the race of Romulus"? or, "come you here into the fire, full of rusticity and clumsiness, chronicle of Volusius"? or, "Thyades crying Evoe with flying hair"? or, "from whom first all those good things had their springing for me"? or scores of other sentences that might be cited? Yet surely a good poem, or a good phrase, in Latin should be made a good poem, or a good phrase, in English. One might cite unpleasant repetitions, like "parents' death," "death of his young son," in successive verses, for *extinctos parentes* and *primaevi funera nati* (by the way, does not *primaevi* mean "firstborn"?); "falls out," and "is shaken out," of the unlucky apple in c. 65, for *procurrit* and *excutitur*. Nor does Mr. Cornish avoid rhythmical sentences, those marked blemishes of a prose style, censured so long ago by Quintilian: witness, for example, "See how mighty and rich for you is the house of your husband"; "I entreat you, my sweet Ipsithilla, . . . bid me come and rest at noonday with you"; "Maiden modest and chaste, give back the tablets." Nor in general is there to be found such felicity of expression as is needed to justify a prose version of a true poet. There are, indeed, examples of neat, rather than beautiful, renderings of single words or phrases, but no sustained power. One or two instances will suffice to show what we mean. Take the sonorous, reëchoing dignity of those famous lines,

> "Montium domina ut fores
> silvarumque virentium
> saltuumque reconditorum
> amniumque sonantum."

These Mr. Cornish renders, "that thou mightest be the lady of mountains and green woods, and sequestered glens, and sounding rivers."

> "Nec meum respectet, ut ante, amorem,
> qui illius culpa cecidit velut prati
> ultimi flos, praeter eunte postquam
> tactus aratrost."

is rendered, "And let her not look to find my love, as before; my love, which by her fault has dropped, like a flower on the meadow's edge, when it has been touched by the plough passing by."

This is "conscientious" and "accurate" enough, but what has become of the poetry?

The Basis of English Rhythm. By William Thomson. Glasgow: W. & R. Holmes. 1905.

It is hard to maintain a properly judicial spirit in reviewing this pamphlet of scarcely sixty-three pages. By it any adept is likely to be rapt into a trance of amazed enthusiasm, searching in vain among his memories of the hundreds of jottings, notes, remarks, essays, articles, booklets, books, and tomes which have appeared since George Gascoigne penned his all too brief and all too hurried 'Notes of Instruction' in 1575, for even one with anything like so much pith, sap, and kernel in so little space. In several respects it is the most important utterance yet made on the subject. Who disbelieves should read it and be convinced. He may disagree with some statements and inferences, but he will find himself understanding every sentence at first reading, and reading many sentences over and over for mere relish of their novelty or cogency, or sound, plain common sense. Everywhere he will be stimulated to thought, and much of it will be new thought, much instant clarification of old puzzles.

Few, indeed, are the points calling for animadversion, yet the pamphlet has some small faults. Paragraph 4, for instance, is not germane to the discussion. Again, with any one possessing so fine and accurate an ear as Mr. Thomson's, we hesitate to disagree as to rhythm; yet the natural accents of the prose phrases cited in paragraph 6 do not appear to be equidistant in spontaneous utterance, nor the groups to be equal. His ingenious "jumble-hexameters" on page 18 have no cæsura. His scansions of the French verses he cites make us feel that he had best stick to his own tongue. The habits of enunciation, and therefore the fabrics of versification, scouted in paragraph 10 as unthinkable or impossible, are so indeed, especially for English, and perhaps for most, but not for all, human tongues and ears. It is not clear why, at the top of page 35, the first syllable of "blowing" is marked *short* and the second *long*; nor why, on page. 41, "ripples" is marked similarly.

These are microscopic defects. More serious (pp. 26, 27) is the failure to comprehend Lanier's clear distinction between primary and secondary rhythm. Mr. Thomson's expositions of variety in secondary rhythms is here very ingenious and entirely

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convincing, but Lanier allows that upon one primary rhythm different secondary rhythms may be superposed according to the incidence of the ictus. Least of all can we agree with Mr. Thomson when (pp. 39, 63) he minimizes the difference between iambic and trochaic, anapæstic, and dactylic movements. The analyzer may fulminate forever against the separate existence of iambs and anapæsts, and asseverate that they are mere negligible subvarieties of trochees and dactyls; he may prove categorically that there are not and cannot be such metrical units in English as iambs and anapæsts; the creator of English poetry who genuinely comprehends his medium of expression cannot but feel that in English the distinction between rising and falling rhythm is vital and fundamental.

We have called attention to most of the essay's weak points. They detract from its atmosphere no more than a dead mouse or two would affect the air of a whole Alpine valley. To quote the best of its good things would be to reprint half the pamphlet. The mere mention of nomenclature and notation usually sickens a student of books on versification, each of which customarily foists upon such a public as it secures a set of new words and a system of novel marks more inept and more clumsy (if possible) than the last. One generally finds the nomenclature unacceptable, and the notation incomprehensible, or at best barely half-intelligible, and obtains from it a very faint conception of how the author would read the verses he comments upon. Behold, Mr. Thomson puts forward a few new terms, each of which will aid the clear thinking of any user and will fit aptly into any one's vocabulary. As for his notation, when we run over the series of musical notes without staff-lines which Mr. Thomson prints with a quoted line of verse, we know exactly, to the minutest detail of utterance, how he reads it, how he pronounces it, how he enunciates it. We have always felt an ineradicable prejudice against the possibility of any one's devising a method of using musical notes to set forth the characteristics of English verse as read, not as sung. This prejudice is now uprooted and abolished. We perceive that in previous systems using musical notes to express methods of scansion, the fault was with the application, not with the signs employed.

Virtually Mr. Thomson gives us no theories. He is all practice, and such practice! He dares to scan English verse neither as if sung nor as if read as prose, but as naturally read as poetry. And the scansion is a success. He conveys to one with miraculous ease how he reads "The Battle of the Baltic" or Shelley's "Away, the moor is dark beneath the moon," showing that he perfectly comprehends those pæonic and semi-pæonic lilts which are a despair or a confusion to most writers on English prosody. His notation is all he claims for it. A Scot, a Californian, and an Australian, each at home, may by its means carry on an intelligible discussion involving nearly all the subtleties of metrification. Divergent or contradictory interpretations of the movements of any line or phrase may be set forth without ambiguity. We know instantly and finally how Mr. Thomson would recite "All, all are gone, the old familiar faces," or "Take your own time, Annie, take your own time," or "What's Hecuba to him or he to Hecuba?" If we disagree (and we, for example, have found ourselves disagreeing positively), we can at once set down our own rendition in his notation and compare it with his. To comprehend it or to use it, no knowledge of music is needed. He expresses without effort the difference between the way he would read a phrase as mere prose, or as in iambic verse, or as in anapæstic or in pæonic. Who, finally, capable of judging, can fail to rejoice over his plain, simple, understandable distinction (p. 51) between "heel-rhythm" (mechanical beating-out of the type-movement), "head-rhythm" (intelligible, unimaginative delivery), and "heart-rhythm" (the impassioned utterance of one who feels all the subtleties of the words)? Mr. Thomson's notation is far from perfect. We by no means believe that it is likely to win universal acceptance, oust all others, and take a place of permanent usefulness between the alphabet on the one hand and the score on the other as an abiding instrument for the expression of ideas. We believe that a better, simpler, more compact notation, more in line with Schmidt's, in his 'Rhytmik und Metrik,' can and may be devised. But at least, after many futile attempts, here is one good notation at last to start us towards a better. Our doubt is, can others less gifted than its deviser learn to apply it as well as he?

So much matter is in this treatise and so often does one look back to compare expressions, that, even in so thin a booklet, one misses an index.

China in Law and Commerce. By T. R. Jernigan. The Macmillan Co.

In addition to his honorable record in the consular service of the United States, Mr. Jernigan has placed English-reading people under further obligation by issuing what is probably the best single volume for all who have practical relations or business with the Chinese. One may by long labor select from the mass of printed matter concerning China much of what Mr. Jernigan has collected; but here in one handy book is choice and exact information, carefully sifted, tested, and arranged concisely and in an orderly manner. He has made a special study of those features of law and custom which help to explain a country like China, in which each province exists as an independent unit sufficient unto itself, while in theory the power of the Emperor is unlimited. The antagonistic elements thus presented to the alien's view of administration are harmonized apparently by the universal solvent of a common educational and social system. The real basis of this perduring fabric of government proceeds from the family unit, and not from the central authority at Peking—thus reversing the Japanese system. The customs which are the foundations of all law in China, are the customs of the family, and it is difficult to know the inner springs of history or everyday procedure unless one has studied the family life of the people. This Mr. Jernigan has done so well that his text has a commendable clearness and directness. One feels here the firm touch of one who, besides consulting standard authorities, has had long observation and practical experience.

We know of no book that enables one to see clearly those differences in the great Chinese mass which have been wrought by the physical features of the country, and by cosmical influences operating through thousands of years. For example, in the United States the drainage of the country is from north to south, while that in China is chiefly from west to east, the three great commercial cities being naturally at the mouths of her three great rivers. Centuries of agriculture have created in the Chinese peasant a frenzy for removing the forests, with the result that now he must grub up grass, roots, and the droppings of animals for fuel, and thus keep the treeless land denuded. The cutting down of the forests has not only been the cause of drought and flood, but has had the effect of congesting population along the river valleys and maritime provinces, leaving considerable portions of China uninhabited. North China and South China have been virtually separated for ages, and only in comparatively modern times have the two differing populations mixed.

Keeping in view these differences, created not only by ethnic origins, but by natural forces, the author proceeds to discuss, in fifteen chapters, Statute and Family Law, Tenure and Transfer of Property, Taxations, Courts, Guilds, Business Customs, and Transit by Land, Water, and Railway, etc. The land tax is the chief source of revenue. The coffers of the Government would be usually full if the administration were honestly conducted; but, while the revenue of the Empire ought to be 115,000,000 taels, derived from the land tax, salt gabelle, customs duties, etc., not more than 80,000,000 taels actually reach the treasury in Peking. Even of this sum, more than half is already mortagaged for the payment of foreign loans and indemnities. Sir Robert Hart shows that at present the only hope of a revenue sufficient to keep China from bankruptcy is in a rearrangement of the land tax, and in his recent memorandum, he indicates how the reform may be accomplished.

There are many subjects of immediate and practical interest to all foreigners who have any present or prospective economic dealings with the Chinese, and one is tempted to quote from these chapters, so rich in valuable information, and so clearly put, but we refrain. If, however, Mr. Jernigan's volume accomplished nothing else than to show how all life in China, down to the minutest point, is communal—as, for example, even to the buying of an ox to be used in turn by the owners, and to the business of begging—his volume would be welcomed. It makes a real addition to the comparatively few books on China that penetrate below the surface of things. We must, however, call attention to the chapters on land transit and water transit, which the new enterprises are so seriously to disturb, and which have already been an efficient factor in producing the Boxer rebellion. A concluding chapter on railway transit gives the map of the country as expressed in terms of the steel rail. There is a good index to this noteworthy book.

Cavour. Da Domenico Zanichelli. Florence: Barbèra. 1905.

Students of the Risorgimento have long esteemed Professor Zanichelli for his edi-

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tion of Cavour's 'Scritti,' to which he prefixed an admirable introduction. He has now produced in one volume an exhaustive study of Cavour's political career, which will be indispensable to those who wish to know thoroughly the doctrines and aims of the great statesman. His purpose is analysis, not narrative, and he succeeds admirably in laying bare the evolution of each line of policy, showing how far circumstances or the opinions of friends and foes caused Cavour to change his position.

Professor Zanichelli devotes nearly half of his book to the years earlier than 1850, the date of Cavour's entrance into the Cabinet; and, if at first this seems a somewhat disproportionate allowance, we conclude, before the end, that it was wise. For it was during the preceding fifteen years that Cavour, by study, travel, and reflection, prepared himself for a political career, so that at forty he had completely mastered the principles which he was to make prevail in Italy. Without an ample account of these years of preparation, Cavour's immediate leadership on reaching office would seem almost miraculous, instead of the inevitable result of immense training plus genius. This is proved by his articles in the *Risorgimento* during the Revolution of 1848, which leave no doubt as to his ability as a political thinker. Read in the light of subsequent events they are almost incontrovertible, and one might wonder why they and their author were disregarded at the time; but that is likely to be the fate of any publicist who, in a period of upheaval, stands as the spokesman of reason, and takes long, clear, sane views. Professor Zanichelli, by generous quotations and searching analysis, has no difficulty in establishing Cavour's superiority; but perhaps it would have been well to explain more fully the doctrines of the men and groups that opposed him. The historian ought not to take it for granted that, because the Neo-Guelf or the Unitarian politicians proved "ridiculous," Neo-Guelfism and Unitarianism may be treated as unimportant. On the contrary, it should be his business to make intelligible the spell cast by even crazes and delusions at their height.

From Cavour's assumption of the premiership in 1852, Professor Zanichelli gives us an uninterupted analysis of the policy which led to the political and industrial regeneration of Piedmont and the participation in the Crimean war, to the alliance with Napoleon III., to the war against Austria, to the annexation of Central Italy and the Two Sicilies, and to Cavour's prophetic speech, just before his death, on the Roman Question. We heartily commend his treatment of this marvellous political achievement, not so much because it contains fresh revelations as because it is uniformly sound. He emphasizes permanent principles rather than transient events, no matter how dramatic these may be. Accordingly, he tells less about the steps which led to the union (*Connubio*) between Cavour and Rattazzi than about the significance of that act. He passes over unmentioned the real cause of the ministerial upheaval in 1857. He attaches little weight to such favorite catch questions as, Was Cavour always a Unitarian? and, Did he originate the Crimean venture?

Concerning the charge of craft which is often brought against Cavour's statesmanship, this critic renders a general verdict of "justifiable." No part of his work is more acute than that in which he shows how, in the desperate months while Garibaldi was freeing Sicily, Cavour was driven to adopt guileful methods which he detested. "He bent to circumstances, he thought more of the end than of the means," says Zanichelli; "he acted as Pitt had acted toward Ireland, . . . but he was constrained to do so because he found himself in one of those conditions in which political morality does not coincide—on the contrary, it clashes—with private morality." A statesman, the author goes on to say, in seeking the welfare of his country,

"ought always to employ means which do not conflict with the principles of morality; but when this is impossible, and he has to face the dilemma of either not fulfilling his duties as statesman or of infringing moral principles, he ought to fulfil his duties. . . . History has no mercy for incompetent but honest statesmen; come what may, they must be competent. This is not the doctrine that the end justifies the means, but, on the contrary, the Roman doctrine that the supreme law, to which everything must yield, is the safety of the State—that is, of the country—to which all must be sacrificed."

These quotations sufficiently indicate Professor Zanichelli's attitude on the moral question; he further performs a real service in showing how intricate that moral question is. You may, for instance, condemn Cavour for playing fast-and-loose with Garibaldi's expedition, but you may find it difficult to suggest an alternative policy which would have been more moral and equally productive of good.

The general reader, especially if he be a foreigner unfamiliar with the details of the Risorgimento, will need to seek outside of Professor Zanichelli's volume for a narrative of events to make some of his criticism clear; for he does not supply dates and connecting links of historical action. But by one steeped in the subject, this study will be highly esteemed. It paints soberly and truthfully the central figure in the most splendid political achievement of Europe in the nineteenth century. Zanichelli's conclusion deserves to be quoted, since he is a scholar who strives to write with scientific restraint.

"Cavour," he says, "is the greatest statesman of modern Europe, because it was he who was able with the smallest means to obtain the greatest results. In him are Richelieu's alert and prudent audacity, Pitt's fascination of speech and geniality of ideas, Gladstone's humanitarian and civic sense, Bismarck's vastness of conceptions and force of character to realize them in spite of all obstacles. Greater than all, because more complete, more harmoniously balanced than all. He is the most ideal political leader the world has ever had; in him the calculating coldness of the statesman was united with the enthusiasm of the apostle, the audacity of the tribune, the courage of the conspirator and the rebel."

Comparisons are uncertain, and it is impossible to say what Richelieu would have done had he lived in the last generation; but whoever wishes to get a fair measure of Cavour's extraordinary genius should follow him day by day from his conference at Plombières, in the summer of 1858, to the peace of Villafranca, in July, 1859, and again from March to November, 1860. What might not Italy have been saved had he lived twenty years longer!

Lectures on the Historians of Bohemia. Being the Ilchester Lectures for the Year 1904. By the Count Lützow. Henry Frowde. 1905.

The neo-Czechish movement in Bohemia, like the neo-Hellenic movement in Greece, which preceded it by a generation, has its roots in sentimental and historical grounds. By the apologists of Austrian rule at Prague the Society of the Bohemian Museum is represented as a group of visionaries even more than as a body of rebels. On the other hand, the Czechs themselves find in the past, and particularly in their glorious century of 1420-1526, the truest and most substantial basis of their present aspirations. The logic of events, which to those of the Hapsburg party seems unanswerable, is to the patriots of Bohemia nothing more than an example of foreign brutality, and for them sentiment fed upon history is the animating impulse of all political life. The works of Palacký are a magazine of choice political quotations suggested by events in the national annals and turning upon the anomaly of Hapsburg rule or the ancient feud between Czech and German. After the revolution of 1848, when asked to take a seat in the Frankfort Parliament, he declined, on the ground that he was not a German, but a Bohemian. "The rulers of Bohemia have often been on terms of intimacy with the German princes, but the Bohemian people has never considered itself as German." And elsewhere he states, in a passage which has become a watchword, that Bohemia existed before Austria and will outlive her.

We refer thus to the general connection between politics and history in Bohemia because Count Lützow's lectures at Oxford have their origin in a wish to do something for the Bohemian cause by illustrating before a foreign audience the wealth of Czechish traditions. When Palacký completed the revised edition of his 'History' in 1876, a great banquet was given him, at which, when speaking of himself and his work, he gave his final testament to his fellow-countrymen. Recalling the intellectual eminence of Bohemia at the time of Huss, he placed before his hearers one prime duty, namely, that of extending the national culture. Count Lützow ascribes to this injunction his presence at Oxford, and, even without such a statement from his own lips, it would not be difficult to see how far his study of the past has been stimulated by political motives. We do not mean to imply that his lectures are studded with denunciations of Austria, or that he casts aside the methods employed in impartial research; but behind the calmness of his tone may be discerned the intense fervor of the patriot, and we are enabled to realize from his whole treatment of the subject how inseparably connected in Bohemia is modern political propaganda with memories of the Hussite movement and the Thirty Years' War.

These lectures will serve a most useful purpose, for in England and the United States hardly any one has a detailed knowledge of Bohemian history. Count Lützow, on making especial inquiry to see how many references to Palacký occur in the works of English writers, found that they were most scanty, and could discover in one book alone proof of real acquaintance with them. Bishop Creighton, in preparing an account of the Hussite movement, had gone to the greatest of the Bo-

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hemian historians, and from him to his sources in the chronicles of the fifteenth century. Yet even now, says Count Lützow, "when the great work of Bishop Creighton has somewhat enlightened the English public, the names of Conrad of Waldhausen, Milič of Kremsier, and Matthew of Janod are known but to few." Among Bohemian historians recently deceased, Anton Gindely is perhaps better known to English readers than any other from his monographs on the *Majestätsbrief* and the Catholic reaction in Bohemia, as well as from his excellent book on the Thirty Years' War. Of those still living, Wenceslas Tomek, author of the standard life of Ziska and of a history of Prague which is comparable with Gregorovius's 'Rome in the Middle Ages,' is the most famous, though Professor Goll also stands in the first rank through his writings on the Bohemian Brethren.

While Count Lützow alludes briefly to his contemporaries, the chief of his attention is devoted to the chronicles of the Middle Ages and the era of the Reformation. Here the conditions fixed by a popular course of lectures compel him to be brief in his notice of all save the now famous authorities, like Cosmas, Benes of Weitmil, Lawrence of Brezof, Sixt of Ottersdorf, and Paul Skála. Palacký covered this same ground in one of his earliest works, 'Die Würdigung der alten böhmischen Gesichtschreiber.' Count Lützow has found his task rendered much easier by the notes and criticisms of his illustrious predecessor. Himself one of the most eminent among Bohemian scholars, he gives us simply and tersely the results of the most recent research on technical points in conjunction with Palacký's views on the larger issues. To many of our readers we can best convey an impression regarding the style and quality of his work by stating that it resembles a compressed Wattenbach with an element of current political interest added.

We have stated that Count Lützow is a Bohemian patriot; but to show how he guards against the use of hard language, we may instance his treatment of Æneas Sylvius among writers of the fifteenth century and Professor Höfler among the moderns. Of Æneas Sylvius, whose diplomacy during the Council of Basel cannot be remembered with pleasure in Bohemia to-day, he has no worse censure than the following passage:

"'Many untruthful tales concerning Bohemia that have since been incessantly repeated, are due to Æneas Sylvius; among these is his report of the death of Ziska, whom he describes as dying blaspheming and ordering his skin to be used as a drum. It is difficult to read anything more repulsive than this account of the death of a man who, though not untouched by the cruelty of his time, was, according to his own lights, a fervent Christian and a true Bohemian patriot."

While these words are direct, they seem self-contained when one remembers how open to criticism and recrimination is the early part of Æneas Sylvius's career. Of Höfler's reply to Palacký, Count Lützow says little besides pointing out that it was printed at the Imperial printing-press, and that its inaccuracy is proverbial in Bohemia.

When one remembers what happened to the Czech race after the battle of the White Mountain, he will find no difficulty in understanding why the present régime at Prague is hated on historical grounds. Count Lützow undoubtedly expresses in these lectures the sentiments that animate a large majority of the Bohemian population. But, though stating his position with firmness, he does not suffer his cause to be prejudiced by the use of rancorous language, while in his account of the Czechish historians he furnishes information of which the English-speaking world is sorely in need.

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